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ABSTRACT

Conference papers outlining strategies for implementing change through inservice education are presented. Three opening papers deal with the general theme of the conference: "Effective Inservice Education" (Gordon Lawrence); "A Panel Discussion on Staff Development" (Margaret L. Trent, Robert W. Evans, and Frederick R. Cyphert); and "Evaluation of Inservice Education: A Harder More Revealing Look" (Ben M. Harris). Six papers address major issues in inservice education: "Translating Priorities into Action: A Planning Process" (Lilburn P. Hoehr); "Process Strategies for Effective Staff Developers" (Richard T. Vacca and Jo Anne Vacca); "Improving School Practices Through Principals' Inservice" (James LaPlant, Gerald Prince, and Harold Rowe); "Teacher Centered Inservice" (C. William Phillips); "Implications for Staff Development in the 1980s" (James King); and "Teaching Concepts: Implications for Teacher Development" (Thomas C. Gibney). Five papers discuss curriculum directions in basic skills for the 1980s: "A Summary of Basic Skills in Mathematics Presentation" (Margaret Bledsue Kasten); "Staff Development for the Three Rs" (Elizabeth Dillon-Peterson); "Implementing a Basic Skills Program in an Urban Setting: A Summary" (Isabelle Carter); "Discovering Writing: A New Look at Written Communication" (Charlotte K. Brooks); and "Principals' Reading Leadership Program" (Peggy E. Ransom). (JMK)

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Dissemination Report

Systematic Planning for School Improvement

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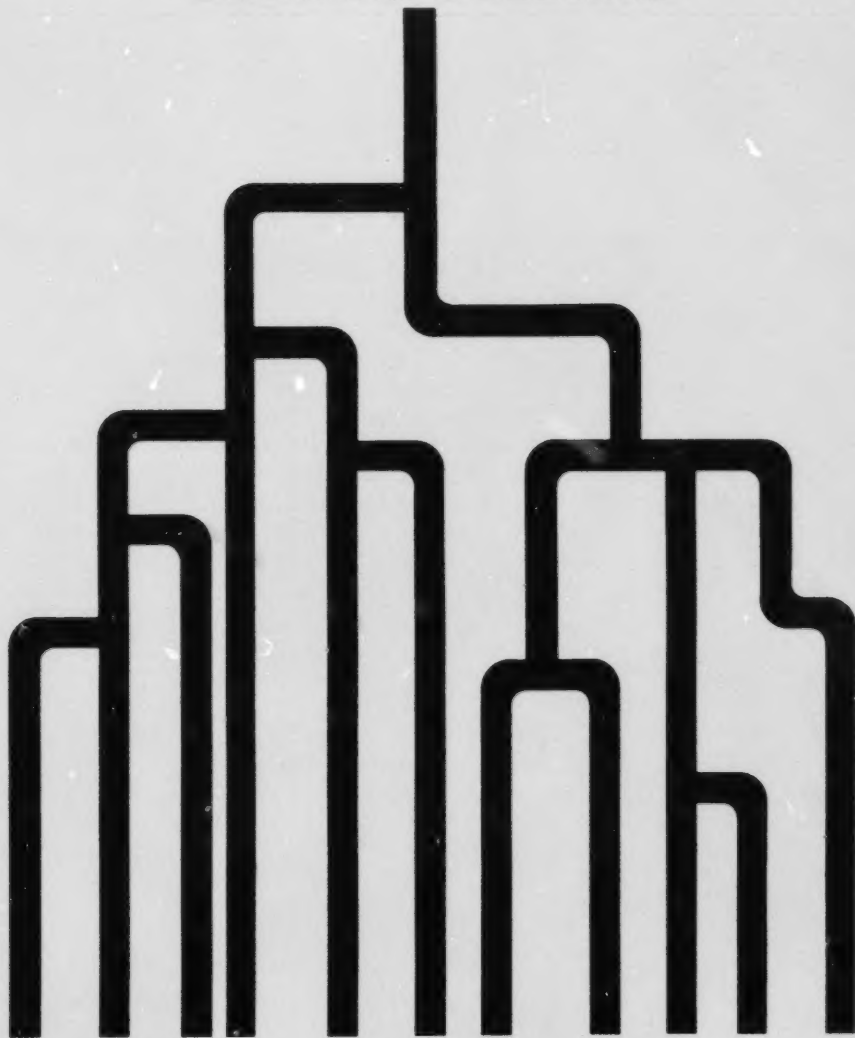
During May 5 and 6, 1981, the Department of Education, Office of Inservice Education, sponsored a conference on Systematic Planning for School Improvement. The conference was designed to address the concerns of school district personnel who are engaged in staff development and basic skills. The speakers outlined strategies for implementing change through inservice education.

Three hundred and thirty-five educators attended sessions on the major components of staff development and curriculum patterns in basic skills.

Because participants were unable to attend all of the sessions, the proceedings of the conference are published. This dissemination report reflects the format of the conference—it is divided into three parts: General Sessions, Major Issues in Inservice Education, and Curriculum Directions in Basic Skills for the 1980s. Conference speakers provided the papers and summaries that follow.

The staff of the Office of Inservice Education hopes that the information provided will prove helpful to school district personnel.

General Sessions



EFFECTIVE INSERVICE EDUCATION

Speaker: Gordon Lawrence
Professor
University of Florida, Gainesville

Inservice education for teachers has an image problem. Most teachers I have worked with have an image of inservice education that does not bode well for the success of inservice programs. Their mental image is what they imagine will happen in the name of inservice education. See if the following teacher's account sounds familiar to you.

Some hot Wednesday afternoon in the spring we gather in the media center, and somebody puts in my hand a three-page set of questions with little boxes. I'm supposed to check the boxes that match my needs for inservice education. In the fall I'm handed an inservice schedule sheet that lists workshop topics and the names of some university professors and a few others who have been engaged to conduct the workshops on certain dates. I don't recognize any topics related to the little boxes I checked last spring, but I'm not surprised.

Because I'm expected to participate in at least some inservice activities, I sign up for two or three. When I get to them, I am given the general impression that I am deficient in something that researchers or theorists regard as important, so I should be remediated. The leader, noticing that I am less than enthusiastic about this workshop, makes me feel vaguely guilty in not taking more initiative to shape the workshop to my needs.

So here I am after a hard day's work, low on energy, feeling guilty because I'm giving this outsider a poor impression of our faculty, feeling angry about feeling guilty, feeling sorry for having signed up, feeling really angry at an inservice system that gets me into situations like this. It does not call upon the best in me. It makes me feel uncreative and less than professional, and I don't know why.

Does this account ring true? I am afraid that such experiences have shaped the image that most teachers have of inservice education. We all know about the power of expectations in molding

our behavior. How can expectations for inservice education be positive when its image is negative?

If I say that we have the job of reshaping the image of inservice education, I am not suggesting a Madison Avenue public relations and advertising campaign. I am not suggesting new packaging for the same familiar product, nor cosmetic changes like a new name. Whether we call it staff development, or professional development or something else, the mental image that teachers have of inservice education depends on what they experience in its name.

If we are to take steps to reshape education, we must first consider our own images. My personal image of what inservice education can be has come largely from my examination of the research on inservice programs. My task this morning is to share with you the generalizations that can be drawn from the research and used to guide policy plans for inservice education. Do you have in your mind an image of yourself as a person who can in some way influence how inservice education is planned and conducted? If you do, these ideas can help you.

Seven years ago, some graduate students and I undertook the first comprehensive search and review of research on inservice education. Among 800 reports on inservice programs that we located, we identified 97 as being research in the sense that they gave some attention to matters of reliability and validity. Just this past year we undertook an update of the earlier review and included studies that appeared through 1979. This time we used a new technique called meta analysis to numerically combine effects across studies.

In meta analysis, any gains or changes in effects of a program can be converted to a common base and combined across independent studies. For example, 25 studies were of programs that taught teachers new skills and obtained numerical measures of the gains in the various skills. Meta analysis involved converting all the scores to a common skills scale and reporting the combined results of all skills measures. Thus it became possible to say that of the programs concerned with new teaching skills, those programs that took place at the school were more successful than those conducted elsewhere, such as a college campus.

Besides teaching skills or performance as program outcomes, we sorted the studies into three other categories of program objectives: cognitive objectives (the teacher's store of information and concepts); affective objectives (changes in attitudes, values and interests of participating teachers); and consequence objectives (changes in pupils that resulted from what participants gained in the programs).

The review process began with 6,000 abstracts and references. About 150 of the documents reported some quantitative findings. Those that met the topical criteria and also had statistics which could be synthesized across studies numbered just 59.

The review was directed toward answering four questions. When the purpose of professional education programs is cognitive change in the participants, what contexts, materials, and procedures have been found to be more effective for that purpose? The other three questions deal similarly with affective, performance, and consequence changes.

Findings of the Review

There were many detailed findings that I could not cover in these few minutes. I will discuss 11 general findings.

The inservice programs most successful in accomplishing their objectives were ones that:

- involved teachers actively in initiating, planning and conducting the program.
- were designed as a collective effort of a faculty, with common purposes directed toward general faculty development rather than focusing on the separate goals and needs of individual faculty members.
- were funded in ways that permitted the teachers and administrators of individual schools to sponsor them, to design activities, and to select inside and outside leadership as appropriate to the plans. (Programs led by school supervisors, teachers and college personnel met their objectives better than those led by state department of education personnel, school district staff, or other outside consultants.)
- were scheduled at times (evenings, summers) that did not compete with but complemented other professional obligations of the participants. (Programs scheduled during work hours were considerably less successful in achieving objectives.)
- had diverse program patterns that seemed to emphasize teacher responsibility—self-instruction, peer study groups, college courses, one-to-one consultation. (The formats loosely labeled as workshop and staff meeting were considerably less successful in achieving objectives.)

- involved participants in both receptive and active roles—receiving new ideas and putting them into action—rather than one type without the other.
- had sequences in which participants could try out new things in their classroom (or in simulations) and then receive appropriate feedback from a skilled person. (Programs in which participants were expected to store up new ideas and behavior prescriptions for a future time were distinctly less successful in achieving objectives.)
- had leaders who were linkers with a university or other center concerned with professional development.
- had opportunities for participants to see demonstrations of exemplary practices, and to learn the skills of observing the practices in themselves and others.
- did not rely on lecture presentations as the main activity.
- were conducted at the school site if the programs emphasized affective or skill performance objectives.

One of the variables that did not account for differences in outcomes was whether or not teachers had a choice of participating in the program.

A reader of the 59 studies gets the distinct impression that the more successful programs treated their participants as professionals, as conscientious people who want to continue to expand their skills and their range of professional competence. The more successful programs seemed not only to give careful attention to planning the inservice activities, but were planned to fit the design and methods to the people—to their purposes and to the context in which they worked.

Is there any doubt in your mind that teachers' mental images of inservice education would improve if they were consistent with these 11 findings?

While the four-year Rand study of 293 federal seed money projects did not produce quantitative data that could be included in our meta analysis, it did produce generalizations that were strikingly similar to those of our study. The Rand findings highlighted the importance of the total teacher-faculty involvement in staff development—a developmental model rather than a deficit model. Successful programs had solid institutional support. In the activities themselves, teachers had active roles in continued planning, in identifying what their training should be, in local materials development, in making classroom applications, and in evaluating outcomes.

Four Successful Studies and Their Research Designs

For the second half of my talk, I will describe four of the successful inservice programs included in our study. I believe they represent programs that were well designed to treat teachers as professionals. While they were research studies and were carefully documented, you will recognize in them policies and activities you can undertake in your situation, things you can do to help improve teachers' images of inservice education.

A program of self-instruction in classroom skills. Anderson, Evertson and Brophy (1979) trained observers to visit classrooms of 20 first-grade teachers, 10 of whom had participated in a brief training session on techniques for conducting reading groups. Seven other teachers attended the training and agreed to try to implement the techniques but were not observed. Observations were made over a six-month period to examine the actual extent of implementation of the techniques.

The professional development activity was simple, brief, and inexpensive. The researchers met with teachers, explained the plan, and gave those who were interested a brief manual describing 22 principles of managing reading instruction drawn from research findings. Those who read the material and wanted to continue met one more time with the researchers for questions and answers about the 22 principles. This simple program, and the manual itself, treated the teachers as professionals who would be motivated to adapt relevant research findings to their classroom practices if they saw the findings as serving students' needs. The program depended upon teacher initiative and self-instruction.

Students reading scores at the beginning and end of the school year provided a consequence measure of the effects of the intervention. The students of participant teachers, both the observed and unobserved groups, scored significantly higher than students of the control teachers, about one standard deviation higher ($ES=.90$). Observers' records also showed substantial implementation of the 22 principles by participants, with the difference between treatment and control groups showing a mean effect size of .72. Linear regression models were used to analyze reading scores and analyses of variance were computed for observation data.

A workshop based on modeling and simulation. Guttinger and Hines (1977) evaluated a set of workshops designed for diffusing a laboratory approach to individualized, developmental reading instruction. Reading laboratory directors, principals, and reading teachers of three middle schools and one high school participated in

a sequence of workshops in which they went through the experience of being students in the reading laboratory program—testing, interpreting results, counseling, and goal setting. This simulation was followed by analyzing case studies of pupils, role playing and practice in using and managing the materials, equipment, and procedures of the laboratory. Exemplary practices in running a reading laboratory were modeled. Participants then practiced what was modeled, with feedback from workshop leaders.

After a four-day orientation workshop, participants helped to schedule and plan a three- or four-day workshop at their own schools. Follow-up consultation help was available after that. Each school that adopted the laboratory model had a subsequent two-day workshop for content-area teachers. Availability of follow-up support was regarded as an important element of the program model, as was the sharing of leadership responsibilities with participants.

The dependent measure was the subsequent gain in reading scores of pupils who used the labs in the four schools. Complete data sets were obtained on 1014 students. An experimental, pre-post, control group design was used, with students randomly assigned to classrooms and to treatments. Treatment students' gains significantly exceeded those of students who had regular reading instruction. The difference was nearly one standard deviation ($ES = .97$).

Practice with case examples using tapes and films. Kasdon and Kelly (1969) used films and audio tapes to train teachers in the process of identifying pupils' reading instruction levels. In this simulated setting, the viewers administered an informal reading inventory to pupils on film. They also were taught techniques of analyzing the reading level of various instructional materials. Comparing, analyzing, and discussing protocols with fellow participants were regarded as an important feature of the program. The treatment encompassed five two-hour sessions.

Three stratified random samples of 32 teachers, each from grades 2 through 5, were involved in the three-group, posttest-only, control group design. One treatment group received instruction in August before school, one in October after classroom reading groups had been formed. The dependent variable was the size of the gap between the reading level of texts that teachers assigned to pupils and the pupils' scores on a reading inventory. One pupil was selected randomly from the classroom of each teacher in the three groups, for a total of 96 gap scores. Both treatment groups had gap scores significantly lower than the control, but the August group showed the greater difference ($ES = .71$ for August group; $ES = .24$ for October group).

Teachers who received the instruction prior to meeting pupils and assigning them to reading groups showed greater ability to match reading material to the student's reading level. Timing in the school calendar appears to be an important context variable not generally considered in the design of research on professional development programs.

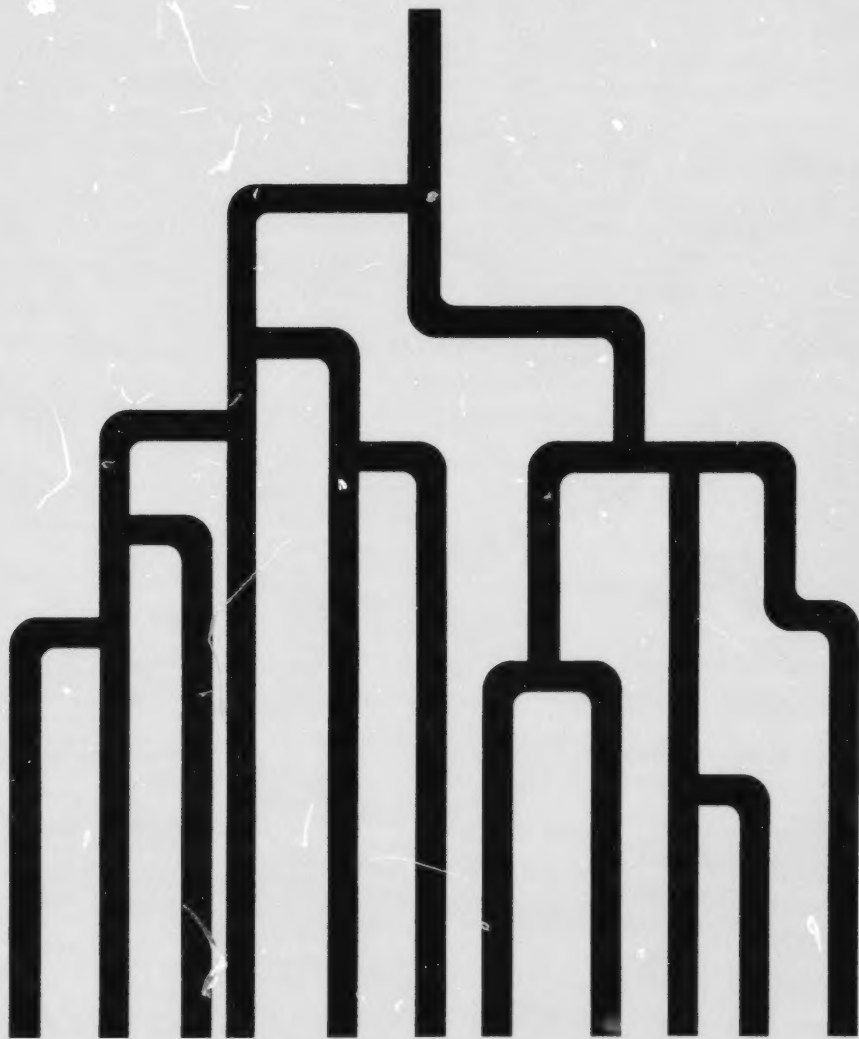
A model employing large-group, small-group, and personal consultation meetings. Marino (1971) examined the effectiveness of a program on child study designed for teachers regarded as having a poor attitude toward pupils. From a pool of 51 teachers who scored at least one-half standard deviation below the mean on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (administered to 180 teachers), 32 elementary teachers were randomly selected and assigned to treatment or control groups. Over three and one-half months, the treatment group met for seven two-hour meetings, followed by a one-hour meeting in groups of four with a resource person. Between the seven sets of meetings, the resource person visited the classrooms of participants in his or her group and had individual conferences with each. The large group ($n = 16$) meetings emphasized research findings on child development, motivation and behavior, and were conducted mainly in a lecture-discussion format. Small group and individual meetings emphasized teacher analysis and reflection on situations in their own classroom. Teachers had released time for group meetings.

The MTAI and the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, administered earlier to 180 teachers, were given post-treatment to the treatment and control groups. With four co-variables considered together (pre-test MTAI, dogmatism, years of teaching experience, and grade taught) a relationship significant at the .01 level was found between the combined co-variables and posttest MTAI scores of the experimental and control groups. The difference between the post means of the two groups showed an effect size of 1.13. There was no post-post administration of the MTAI to examine what lasting effects the program may have had.

Summary

There are many aspects of inservice education not covered in the research studies. Perhaps the largest issue we have to consider is the purposes of inservice education. What images do we have of school, of its purposes? Of ourselves as teachers in our daily transactions with students and with each other? Are those images ones that need to change as we close out the twentieth century? As we introduce children to institutional life, are we helping them form

the images that will sustain our culture in the difficult years ahead? Are we as professionals shaping our own professional development in ways that help us answer these tough questions? I for one am very pleased that the Ohio Department of Education provides us with this opportunity to reflect and consider our professional needs.



PANEL DISCUSSION ON STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Panelist: Margaret L. Trent
Consultant
Division of Educational Services
Ohio Department of Education

The characteristics of successful inservice shared by Dr. Gordon Lawrence are an integral component of the rationale for the Office of Inservice Education. In working toward the priority of enhancing the skills and knowledge of school personnel, the office, through the Teacher Development Program, is prepared to do the following:

- offer technical and consultative assistance
- sponsor statewide programs addressing specific needs
- develop inservice materials and provide assistance with their implementation
- seek financial resources to support staff development programs
- maintain an information network

As I listened to Dr. Lawrence's informative presentation highlighting the characteristics of successful staff development, several department-sponsored projects came to mind:

School based inservice

Providing for school-based inservice programs has been a priority throughout the implementation of the Right to Read/Basic Skills and Teacher Development Programs. Since 1974, emphasis has been on the formation and maintenance of an active inservice task force or planning committee. School districts have been offered the leadership and training necessary to establish ongoing school-based inservice programs implemented by local district leaders.

The two-year series of Administrative Involvement in Reading (AIR) meetings were designed to establish a district team of administrators who could address the instructional needs of each building within the district. Research regarding effective reading programs shows that the principal's leadership is a key component for success. Therefore, the AIR programs utilized the principal in the role of the team leader at the building level.

Teachers participate as planners and provide resources

In support of local district efforts to maintain an active task force or planning committee, regional meetings have been held for the last six years to provide additional training for district supervisors and teachers. These meetings were designed to assist the participants so that they might take an active role in constructing and generating district inservice goals and objectives as well as to encourage them to provide resources to one another at the different levels.

Teachers share successful practices with one another

The office sponsors publications and meetings so that teachers can share successful practices with one another. The publications, Focus on Inservice Education (1978) and Facets of the Teacher Development Program (1981), describe successful inservice ideas, formats, implementation, evaluation strategies, and outcomes.

The "School and Community Handbook for Reading Improvement" provides ideas proven successful during a Right to Read Week Celebration.

Meetings, such as the Conference on Written Communication, Conference on Oral Communication, Young Authors Seminar, Renewal Conference, and the Right to Read Staff Development Training Conferences, not only provided leadership and training but fostered participant sharing and learning together. Each conference includes time for participant dialogue and promotes the sharing of skills within and between districts following the conference. In 1981 the draft publication "Resource Speakers for Staff Development Programs" was distributed.

Self-initiated, self-directed, and individualized inservice activities

Throughout the various educational ventures has been woven the program planning process which includes four components: assess, plan, implement, and evaluate. This process promotes inservice programs based on staff needs and concerns. When the staff member recognizes the personal need, initiates the inservice process and directs the activities, the results tend to be positive.

Self-instructional inservice materials

The development of self-instructional inservice materials has consistently been a department priority. Since 1974, with the

publication of the Teaching Teen Reading Series, materials have been designed for individual or group study. These materials and implementation strategies, produced in numerous content areas for a variety of levels, have been provided for all Ohio Schools.

As I reflect on how this office has addressed the need to assist school districts to provide for the key characteristics of successful staff development, I am proud of our record and of the efforts of many Ohio school districts.

Panelist: Robert W. Evans
Assistant Superintendent of
Public Instruction
Ohio Department of Education

Dr. Lawrence's opening scenario is accurate and appropriate. Inservice education has a negative image among teachers. Too often inservice programs are designed to meet someone else's needs rather than the needs of those for whom it is offered. The statement that the transition from life to death during an inservice session would be barely noticeable is tinged with far too much truth.

Step one for any group which plans to engage in long-range inservice activities, and there is no other effective kind, should begin by having an inservice session on inservice programs. Those who will be responsible for the organization and presentation of inservice activities should train themselves how to go about the task.

The 11 findings of Dr. Lawrence's research may well serve as the core of the inservice on inservice. The first question may be why? What is the problem? Who perceives it as a problem? Where does it rank on the participant's list of priorities? How will you get at it? What outcomes do you expect? How will you know if you are successful? These and other questions need to be examined in your inservice planning.

Once the initial format has been decided the issue must be looked at longitudinally. What kinds of follow-up activities will be needed? Important issues, and only important issues should be dealt with, are not superficial. It takes time to change deeply held views. The cycle of change generally approximates concerns→requests→confrontations→demands→polarization→conflicts→instant honesty→change. These steps in some form always take place and the inservice format must allow for them.

Good inservice education, like good performances in the arts and sports, looks effortless. Looks are oft times deceiving. Clear-

cut goals, meticulous planning, and much practice goes into great performances. The importance of Dr. Lawrence's work is the theoretical conceptualization which practitioners seldom have the time to give. His findings, while not outside the expected, give credence to the conventional wisdom relating to inservice education.

The 11 general findings are not dictates in and of themselves. They should be used as road maps to predetermined destinations. Some of the findings and a partial list of appropriate questions may include:

1. Involve teachers actively in initiating, planning and conducting the program.
 - a. What teachers and why?
 - b. Is the teacher's agenda the same as yours?
2. Design as a collective effort.
 - a. Is there consensus for the goal?
 - b. Will this program help reach that goal?
 - c. Are the critics involved
3. Local teachers and administrators provide leadership.
 - a. Are you doing something with people not to them?
 - b. What are the pragmatic realities for change?
4. Create diverse program patterns.
 - a. Are all aware there is no universal solvent which will wash away the "ignorance" of every person?
 - b. Do you recognize the problem first and then the speakers or vice versa?

Questions such as these and others must be applied to each of the findings in order to effectively utilize them in successful inservice education.

If you don't know where you are going, any road will get you there. If you have clear educational destinations, good inservice programs can shorten the time and distance to those destinations. Good inservice education is doing something with people, not to people.

Panelist: Frederick R. Cyphert
Professor of Education
The Ohio State University

The statements that follow summarize the somewhat random thoughts stimulated by reading Dr. Lawrence's text for this conference as well as his 1974 "State of the Art Summary of Research on Materials and Procedures for Changing Teacher Behaviors in Inservice Education."

First, some relevant statements excerpted from "An Analysis of Research in Teacher Education"* which I published some time ago.

- a. "Research in teacher education has had a very limited impact on the (inservice) education of teachers When one considers the changes made in (inservice) teacher education programs over the past decade, he is struck with the notion that the preponderant majority of those planning the improvement of teacher (inservice) education are applying to the reorganization of their programs their subjective hunches and hypotheses growing out of experience. In curriculum debates, dogma and conviction are frequently substituted for evidence. The rapidity with which programs are being reorganized has increased in the last seven years, but the basis for reorganization is still largely nonempirical....

"Much of our inability to utilize the research evidence that does exist lies in its failure to achieve unity or conceptual interlock.... Consequently, it does not add up to usable generalizations."

In my opinion, this is the beauty and value of Dr. Lawrence's works—he does extract useful and meaningful generalizations from the research.

- b. "Research in teacher education, when viewed singularly, has had less than a monumental impact upon the education of teachers, but when this impact is viewed in relation to that of the research efforts in other professional fields, it does not suffer by comparison.

"Research has apparently had little impact upon (continuing) preparation curricula in any professional field."

- c. "(Inservice) teacher education research reveals a frequent inability to differentiate between the generalizable effect of treatment and the effectiveness of a given application of the treatment. B.O. Smith tells a story that graphically illustrates this point. He postulates a situation in which we are trying to determine the most effective method of teaching future physicians how

*Frederick R. Cyphert, "An Analysis of Research in Teacher Education." *The Journal of Teacher Education*, XXIII, No. 2 (Summer 1972), pp. 145-51.

to cure a common cold. Our tests would show no significant difference; that is, a lecture, silent reading, laboratory sessions, or any other means are equal. This similarity of effect is unrelated to the method of teaching, however, for it is the inevitable result of the fact that there is no valid cure for the common cold."

- d. As a final caveat, one might add that while Lawrence's findings clearly are representative of research on inservice education, we are less confident of the extent to which the extant research is representative of the actual scope and nature of inservice education as it exists today.

Second, regardless of the quantity and quality of the research available, inservice education for teachers is—and will likely remain—an area in which political considerations play a "larger than they should" role. Frequently the success and usefulness of an idea is determined not by its validity but rather by its source; that is, who placed it into the mix or what group takes credit for it.

Third, the inservice education of teachers is an arena that is blessed (or damned) by many settings and a myriad of involved agencies: school districts (and individual schools), teacher centers, state departments, teacher corps, school study councils, county offices, universities, professional associations, profit making companies and consultants, publishers, and so forth. The list is a long one.

The field has not been characterized by either communication and cooperation between agencies (although this is clearly improving in Ohio) or by client awareness of the many alternatives available (let alone an understanding of the kinds of inservice education that each agency is best and least able to deliver). All agencies are frequently used for all purposes, and a given client may frequently use only a small proportion of the available alternatives.

Fourth, preservice programs of teacher education have given absolutely no thought to the question, How can we prepare a future teacher to profit maximally from inservice education as a practicing educator? This question, I believe, will be faced in these next five years—and we will find some answers to it. Coincidentally, this same condition prevails in the preparation programs of most other professions.

Fifth, to my surprise and consternation, I recently learned that the literature of "supervision" and the literature of "inservice education" have less in common than they once had. An analysis of the content of the latest supervision texts and the major texts in

inservice education reveals little overlap in topics considered or in points of view concerning how schools and teachers can improve. This situation is in direct contrast to 20 years ago when inservice education and supervision were nearly interchangeable terms.

Sixth, the fact—and I do believe that it is a fact—that "teachers don't know how to ask for assistance" has great significance. We must attend to this condition in both our preservice and our inservice efforts.

Seven, the literature concerning human development which deals with feelings and meanings and experiencing and the repetitive cycles of life and the nonrepetitive stages of development as we age has yet to make its potential impact upon inservice education—but it is coming.

While I do not question Dr. Lawrence's findings that "focusing on the separate goals and needs of individual faculty members" is not productive, I believe that the condition he describes is true because we have individualized—when this has been done—without taking the adult development literature into account.

Eight, to close my presentation, I shall present some findings which I have extracted from a manuscript entitled "A Quantitative Analysis of the Teacher Inservice Outcome Literature." Unfortunately, I cannot give credit to the author of this significant paper, since I read it in the capacity of a reviewer for the Journal of Teacher Education and authors' names are not available to reviewers.

The study is presented as a sequel to Lawrence's 1974 study. The author reviewed 137 research studies, 73 of which overlap Lawrence's earlier study and 64 of which were published since that document. The author arrived at an "effect size" through meta analysis, that is, by computing the difference of means of the treated and control groups in the research reviewed divided by the standard deviation of the control group. Since effect sizes are then in standardized units, comparisons were made of various studies.

A paraphrasing of the major conclusions of this research analysis follows. The reader will note that several findings are consistent with Lawrence's, one or two are in conflict, and some appear to be unrelated.

Study Characteristics

- Studies in which subjects were randomly assigned to treatment groups show the largest effect. Equivalent control group designs had the lowest average effect.

Situational Variables

- It is much easier to achieve inservice impact in suburban environments than it is in rural schools.

- The socioeconomic status of the school community differentially influences inservice results. Inservice activities in upper class areas show almost no payoff. Activities with teachers in low socioeconomic and mixed socioeconomic neighborhoods show the greatest impact.
- The first-year teacher on the average does not benefit from inservice activities while the greatest payoff can be expected with more experienced professionals.
- The grade level taught by participating teachers does not affect the effect of their inservice activities.

Decision Variables

- Some inservice formats are definitely more effective than others. The more highly structured approaches such as institutes, laboratory experiments, minicourses, and the TABA modules win hands down over less structured approaches to inservice such as lecture, discussion, and independent study. (Parenthetically, highly structured formats last on the average less than eight weeks as contrasted to an average of eleven weeks for looser formats.)
- Inservice programs in which the participant acts as his/her own instructor are at least as effective as all others, that is, college instructor, district personnel, and so forth.
- Inservice programs which make use of established procedures and pre-packaged modules have the best chance of being highly successful.
- The nature of the incentive for participation in inservice—for example, college credit or stipend—has little impact on its effect.
- The place where the inservice activities takes place (local district, college) and the time these activities are scheduled (during working day, after school, weekends) are unimportant considerations in planning inservice.
- Topic is a variable showing large differences in average effect. Sciences, interaction analysis, and human relations have had the greatest success while individualizing instruction and career-vocational education have had the least success.

Outcome Variables

- Inservice activities have a low success rate with attitude change of teachers.
- Inservice activities do have a significant effect upon teacher behavior, but they have a generally weak effect upon the students of those teachers.

THE EVALUATION OF INSERVICE EDUCATION: A HARDER, MORE REVEALING LOOK

Speaker: Ben M. Harris
Professor of Education
The University of Texas at Austin

The rapidly changing character of inservice education as an art and a science, even as a fad, sets the stage for more and better evaluation of practices. The 1980s promise a new formative era for professional personnel development in U.S. schools and colleges. There is much to be borrowed, adapted, and invented, as we give attention to the long neglected inservice needs of personnel, especially classroom teachers and instructional leadership staff. Such developmental efforts cry out for a sense of direction to assure steady improvements in our designs for training.

Research efforts in recent years have been all too modest as they relate to the central questions about inservice education (ISE).^{*} Nonetheless, researchers have been busy, despite their habit of accentuating the need for more research while neglecting the need for its utilization. We are fortunate as practitioners that much of the research on teaching, learning, group dynamics, adult development, and systems design is applicable to the urgent needs we have in designing and evaluating for better ISE.

The growing importance of ISE in all schools throughout the land (the world, in fact) adds a sense of crisis to the problems of evaluation that can be ignored only with great risk. The recognition that all personnel can improve their performance capabilities in major ways, combined with the pressures for better education at reasonable costs, makes inservice education development a logical top priority at local, state, and national levels. I suppose we should pause here to admit that logical priorities are rarely the actual ones in any society. However, as professional instructional leaders, the logic of the urgent importance of more and better inservice education should be compelling, and hence guide our words and deeds as we try to influence both policy and program.

The scarcity of resources for inservice education, and even more severe restrictions on allocations to evaluation, present special challenges. Evaluation must somehow be more abundant and better, we are being told, and still cost peanuts.

^{*}ISE will be utilized repeatedly as an abbreviation for inservice education.

Within this context of an array of existing research findings, a growing urgency for more and better inservice education, and the persistence of scarce resources, I shall try to deal with evaluation in only three ways:

1. Evaluation as a guidance system
2. Systems analysis as a useful model
3. A few specific techniques worthy of more general application.

Evaluation as a Guidance System

Evaluation is seen in diverse ways by both individuals and groups. I shall be talking about ISE evaluation as a process, not an act of judging. I shall be viewing it as a guidance system for improving operations (Stufflebeam). As such, let's be explicit about what evaluation is not:

1. It is not research (Bishop, 1976, p.145).
2. It is not a way of taking a personal ego trip.
3. It is not something someone does to someone else.

Obviously, there are elements of these things imbedded in any evaluation effort, but useful evaluations must be fundamentally different. In essence, evaluation is data gathering, analysis, and interpretations that lead to decisions for action. Those decisions, to improve an inservice operation, must be targeted to three kinds of actions:

1. Specific existing practices should be reinforced, sustained, and protected.
2. Specific practices should be detected, at least preliminarily, as needing attention.
3. The re-design of the operation in specific terms should be given direction.

Ideally, an effective evaluation effort will do all of these three things.

We are gradually learning to evaluate in ways that make such action-oriented decisions possible. There is much we still must learn. We are still breaking out of our research-dominated chrysalis. Researchers, statisticians, and computer specialists have dominated the better efforts to evaluate ISE, but their methodologies have only limited utility for a variety of reasons which space

and time do not permit me to detail. In the absence of research methods that are most appropriate, many practitioners are borrowing in rather casual ways from the public opinion pollsters. The results are not very productive, for the central questions of evaluation of ISE are not be answered by opinion polling. We need methodologies of evaluation that analyze past and present events in ways that explain and predict learning outcomes.

I suggested earlier that this is a new formative era for inservice education. This is also true of evaluation for guiding ISE practices. We are borrowing methodologies from research, opinion polling, and systems analysis. These borrowings must be carefully adapted. However, we need to invent and synthesize as well as to borrow and adapt, keeping in mind the unique purposes to be served. An open-minded approach is essential at this stage in the development of knowledge about ISE evaluation. Dr. Alice Rivlin, an economist and evaluation specialist, stresses the importance of continuing to innovate and submit such innovations to careful study.

What works in one place or one generation will not work for another. The process of developing new methods, trying them out, modifying them, trying again, will have to be continuous. (1971, p.119)

Having made a modest case for rather open, unrestrained efforts to borrow, adapt, innovate and explore in evaluating ISE, a word of caution is also in order. Benjamin Bloom is hardly noted for his conservatism and caution. Nonetheless, he admonishes evaluators:

... I am still optimistic that evaluation studies can be improved While evaluators are likely to make new errors, at least they shouldn't repeat the old errors (Madous et al., 1980, p.ix)

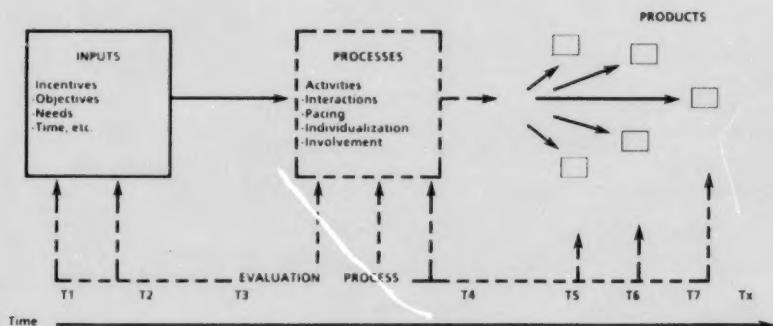
System Evaluation

One of the ways of viewing ISE, and hence its evaluation, is as an operating system (Thomas, 1967, pp.61-63). Whether we are evaluating a single two and one-half hour session, a week-long workshop, a formal course, or a districtwide (even statewide) program, systems concepts do apply and can be useful in designing for evaluation. There is some risk involved, but oversimplification may indeed be an essential feature of an evaluation effort that is feasible and useful. So in simple terms, here is one model of any inservice education operation. (See Exhibit 1)

1. Inputs are provided (the right ones in sufficient amounts). Money, staff, incentives, space, time, credibility, goals and objectives, materials, and participants with motives, expectations, attitudes, and past experiences.
2. Processes are implemented (according to carefully considered designs and plans). Activities, sequences, interactions, presentations, involvements in the form of sights, sounds, feelings, ideas, and tastes.
3. Products are generated (the desired ones with limited negative side effects). Knowledges, information, understandings, concerns, ideas, skills, attitudes, concepts, values, behavior patterns, and feelings.

EXHIBIT 1

OVER SIMPLIFICATION OF A SYSTEM MODEL

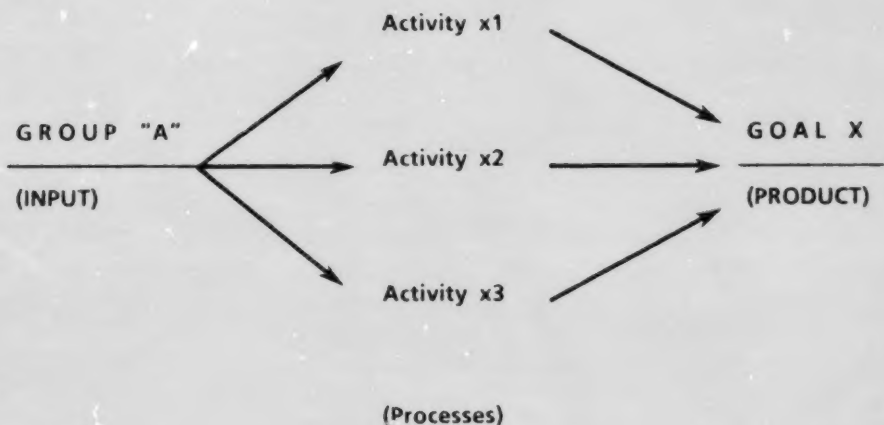


Every reader will, of course, be making mental notes on the specific forms of inputs, processes, and products omitted in my listings. The listings are illustrative only, but serve, I hope, to suggest three quite complex and yet somewhat distinctive categories of events—past, present and future. Because they are such complex sets of events, the evaluation task is to simplify and select; to screen in and out, attending only to certain events most clearly related to the system's operation. Selection and simplification are essential because all events cannot be studied, and extensive analyses are impractical. Because the events of selected importance are spread over time, the evaluation effort must be tuned to an appropriate time-frame, must begin before the operation begins, and continue after it comes to an end.

A less abstract, somewhat more operational view of inservice education as systems is shown here (see Exhibit 2). Inputs as shown are limited to a designated group of participants. In overly simplified form, processes are viewed only as activities in the training effort, while products are referred to simply as goals achieved (Harris, 1975, p.49).

EXHIBIT 2

A SIMPLE SERIES OF ACTIVITIES AS A SYSTEM

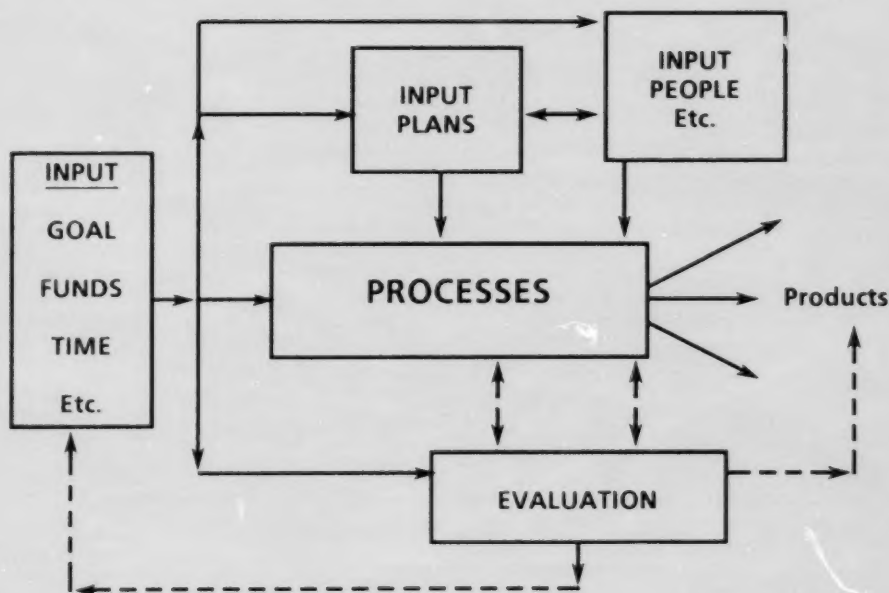


As simplistic as this seems, it is a useful way of conceptualizing for evaluation as well as for planning purposes. Variations on the same configuration of a system are easily recognized if more complex designs are being evaluated. Multiple inputs involving various sets of participants may, of course, be involved at times. Multiple sets of activities may need to be recognized as different processes. And, of course, different products or outcomes are often of importance in evaluation design.

A systems view of inservice education as an ongoing program or programs of operation is presented in Exhibit 3. This too is only schematic in its attempt to suggest a set of input categories that are of special concern when evaluation of large programmatic types are undertaken. This exhibit also suggests the relationship of an ongoing system of evaluation to the various other components of the operation.

EXHIBIT 3

SYSTEM VIEW OF INSERVICE EDUCATION



Methods and Techniques

The utility of systems concepts in evaluating inservice education is, perhaps, greatest in analyzing and interpreting data. The selection of specific factors or variables in terms of their importance to the ISE operation has been stressed. Instrumentation for data gathering will be bypassed in this discussion in order to highlight a few techniques for analyzing and interpreting results when only a few factors are being considered. In illustrating some evaluation efforts of mine as well as some of my students, a variety of factors that seem useful will be reviewed. Most of these factors have been selected for their apparent importance as reflected in research on effectiveness. But equally important as a selection criterion is one of manageability. Factors selected should be those which can be dealt with in very practical ways.

Tabular Analytical Techniques

A common practice in analyzing data is to tabulate frequencies of responses or scores or other events. This assists in making the raw mass of data more manageable. A data reduction process of some kind is almost always necessary before interpretations can follow. Exhibit 4 illustrates an analysis for three measures derived from an evaluation of a Taba Teaching Strategies training program in a Houston area school district. Attitudes of teachers, teacher use of strategies, and pupil achievement scores are tabulated for 32 teacher participants in the program. Interesting as this display is, it does not offer much help with interpretations and can hardly lead to decisions for action.

EXHIBIT 4
FREQUENCY TABULATION --- Taba Data

		Scaled Scores		
	(N)	LOW	MIDDLE	HIGH
<u>Input</u>				
Attitude	(32)	7	12	13
<u>Process</u>				
Teacher Use	(32)	5	9	18
<u>Product</u>				
Pupil Achievement	(32)	11	10	11

A two-by-two analysis technique is illustrated in Exhibit 5 using the same Taba training program data. Only two of the three factors are employed in this analysis—teacher use and pupil achievement. Even so, the display is somewhat more easily interpretable. At least we can see that each combination of levels of teacher use with pupil achievement occurs with nearly equal frequency. This doesn't lead to action decisions, but does suggest caution in claiming an unqualified accomplishment. Of course, other analyses of this same 2x2 design need to be undertaken to relate teacher attitudes to teacher use to pupil achievement. Three displays of this same kind could be revealing.

EXHIBIT 5

TWO-WAY ANALYSIS --- Taba Data

		PRODUCT (Achvmt)		
		HIGH	LOW	TOTAL
PROCESS (USE)	HIGH	9 = 28%	8 = 25%	17
	LOW	8 = 25%	7 = 22%	15

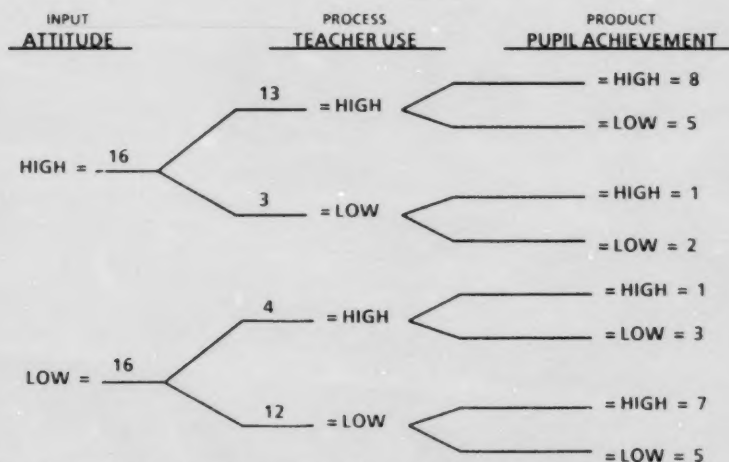
Multivariate Techniques

Systems analysis requires that various inputs, processes, and products be related to each other in a logically sequential manner. A branching diagram analysis technique was developed by Harris (1975, p. 150) some years ago to facilitate handling three factors while still employing the systems model concepts. In Exhibit 6 the input-process-product sequence is retained and the three sets of data are analyzed accordingly. Each set of data on each factor is shown as frequencies, but now quite differently displayed.

EXHIBIT 6

BRANCHING DIAGRAM INPUT—PROCESS—PRODUCT RELATIONSHIPS

FOR TABA IN SERVICE



Such a data display can be read and interpreted in the following manner:

- (1) The 16 teachers whose attitudes were most positive toward the Taba strategies utilized them most in 13 instances. Furthermore eight out of the 13 high attitude/high use teachers had high achieving student groups as measured by selected related test scores.

This is not a very reassuring interpretation, but it is not complete either.

- (8) The 16 teachers with low positive attitudes toward the Taba strategies were also low users in 12 out of 16 instances, but only five of these 12 low attitude/low use teachers had student groups scoring low on selected test measures.

Further interpretations of branches (3) and (4) and (5) and (6) lead to fairly consistent and firm evidence that attitude inputs as measured here are definitely associated with teacher use of the Taba strategies. The same cannot be said for pupil achievement.

Evaluation findings are not always encouraging. The evaluator must frequently take comfort in the words of Thomas A. Edison when one of his experiments failed. "Well, that's one more thing I know that doesn't work." In actual fact, this analysis proved to be the key to the next step in this evaluation. Further analysis, using the same branching technique, showed that positive results were obtained for certain kinds of student groups, but not for others (Carthel, 1973).

Branching Diagrams with Questionnaire Data

Evaluating individual sessions presents problems. Practitioners cannot afford the time and effort for elaborate data gathering for every training session. A single post-session questionnaire has been quite useful to me in several situations. Participants spend 5 to 10 minutes at the end of the session responding to questions about why they came, how actively they were involved, what objectives they sought in attending, and what they got out of the experience. These are expressions of opinions to some degree, but the use of a carefully structured questionnaire format gives some assurances of objectivity and reliability. Responses are always elicited in ways that assure anonymity for the participants.

Exhibit 7 shows a completed branching diagram for a group of participants in an Alabama school system. Forty-two participants responded after a three-hour session. Reasons for attending were checked, involvement levels in an array of activities were estimated, and three types of outcomes were rated. These various raw data were scaled to produce variables which were then analyzed using the high/low splitting procedures illustrated above.

In this illustration, a very interesting pattern appears. More highly motivated participants (25) do not overwhelmingly report high outcomes, but high motivated/low involved participants are predominantly those reporting low outcomes. Consistent with this, low motivation/low involved participants report low outcomes even more consistently.

This branching diagram leads to a conclusion that motivation for attending is not clearly associated with involvement. Furthermore, involvement is only somewhat associated with outcomes. These findings, once again, lead the evaluator to look upon motivation for attending and involvement as quite independent factors.

Efforts may be needed to design such sessions for these participants to emphasize more directly involving activities regardless of motives for attending. Obviously, the evaluator may also want to look at other factors influencing this input and this process.

EXHIBIT 7

ILLUSTRATION OF THE USE OF BRANCHING DIAGRAM ANALYSIS MOTIVATION, INVOLVEMENT, AND OUTCOMES

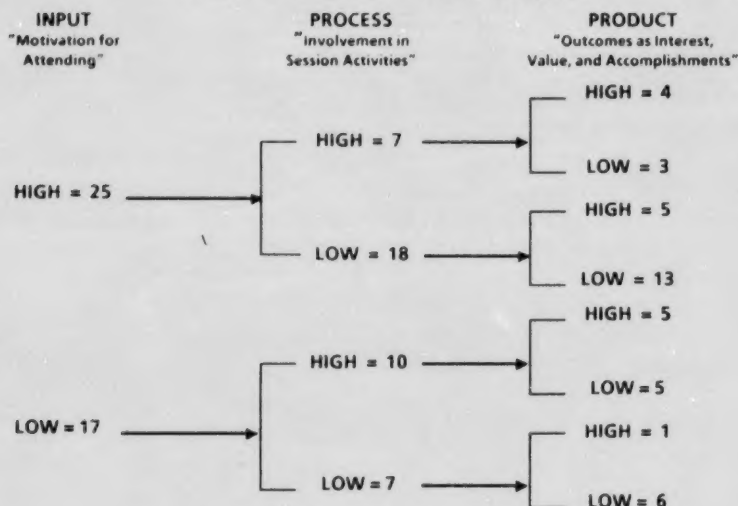


Exhibit 8 illustrates another technique for probing still further to understand what the data provided by participants might mean. Since involvement was at least somewhat associated with outcomes reported, an effort was made to clarify the influence of motivation for attending as an input. Four sub-sets of participants were designated on the basis of their responses to two different input items on the questionnaire. The new input measure utilized in this analysis was the level of complexity of objectives reflected in the expectations of the participants. These four sub-sets of participants are characterized as "eager realists," "too gung-ho," "disinterested," and "show me skeptics." Of course there is no way of knowing that these characterization are correct, but they seem logically possible.

The interesting finding from the analysis displayed in Exhibit 8 is revealed in the declining mean outcome scores for each of the four sub-sets of participants. Once might cautiously draw an interpretation for this exhibit that reasons for attending do relate to outcomes, but only as associated with participant expectations. The action decisions might involve some effort to lower the unrealistic objectives of certain participants with better advance organization. Whether modifications in participant motivations for attending can be promoted is less clear, but a policy review might be in order.

EXHIBIT 8
Outcome Scores for Participants
by Sub-Sets of Motivation/Objectives Levels

Participants	No. of Participants	Outcomes	
		Mean	Range
(1) Highly motivated* but low objectives** (Realists, Eager?)	7	8.86	7-12
(2) Highly motivated and high objectives ** (too gung-ho?)	18	8.21	4-12
(3) Low motivation* and low objectives too (disinterested?)	11	7.82	6-11
(4) Low motivation, but high objectives (Show me skeptics?)	6	5.80	*** 1-9
Total	42	8.12	1-12

* Weighted scores of 2 or 3 = high, low = 0 or 1.

** Weighted scores of 3 = high, 1 or 2 = low.

*** Includes one set of responses in which only one scale was marked.

Other Illustrations with Branching Diagram Analysis

The unusual adaptability of Harris' Branching Diagram Analysis Technique for use in a wide variety of circumstances, using many kinds of data, has been demonstrated in numerous evaluation studies. I will not try to do more than introduce a few additional illustrations.

In a recently completed study of three different inservice education delivery systems, Nancy Hagen (1981) analyzed individualization as an input factor, intensity of training experience as a process factor, and teacher expressed satisfaction with the whole operation as a product. Exhibit 9 is a branching diagram for over 500 teacher respondents in this study.

EXHIBIT 9
BRANCHING DESIGN FOR ALL SYSTEMS

<u>(Input)</u> <u>Individualization</u>	<u>(Process)</u> <u>Intensity</u>	<u>(Outcome)</u> <u>Satisfaction</u>	<u>Branch</u>
High = 199	High = 139 = (70%)	132 = High =	95% (1)
		7 = Low =	5% (2)
	Low = 60	33 = High =	55% (3)
		27 = Low =	45% (4)
Low = 368	High = 110 = (30%)	89 = High =	81% (5)
		21 = Low =	19% (6)
	Low = 258	81 = High =	31% (7)
		177 = Low =	69% (8)

Strong positive relationships are shown in this exhibit between individualization, intensity of experience, and teacher perceived satisfaction. Intensity of experience appears more influential than individualization. The action alternatives from such strong findings are also rather clear. Design for intensity! Individualize activities as much as possible, but above all offer intense experiences. Look at every training session critically. Are the activities multisensory? Will participants be active rather than passive? Will activities have a logical sequence, be varied and paced for intense interactions?

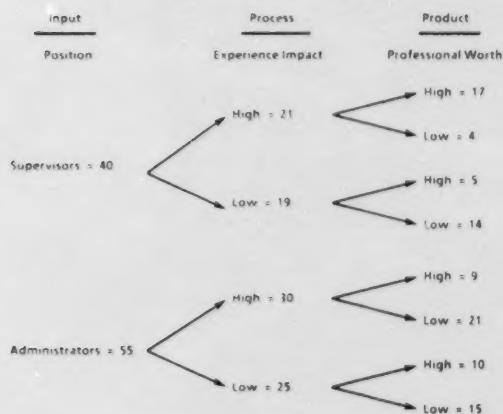
None of these action decisions leads inservice trainers into the strange unknown. Quite to the contrary. Most evaluation findings lead to perfectly plausible courses of action. The potential in such evaluation findings is great because they reflect a specific operation. Unlike research findings, these tell a story about things

happening under your direction in the local setting. The action decisions are directed toward changes within reach. The need for action is often much more compelling.

In an effort to improve conference planning for the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a committee made use of branching diagram analysis techniques a few years ago in San Francisco. A large national conference with some 5,000 participants attending hundreds of different events presents a truly bewildering evaluation problem. We decided to attempt only a modest effort. Sample sessions were selected, a team of process observers were partially trained, and a random sample of participants were given questionnaires on entry to selected sessions. Process observer teams of three to five individuals distributed questionnaires, remained to analyze session activities, and then picked up completed questionnaires at adjournment time. A central tabulation office was established so analysis could proceed even as the conference progressed. At a final session, a preliminary evaluation report was presented with a formal report following.

The analysis of sessions by position of participants illustrates one of the various branching diagrams prepared for the ASCD. Exhibit 10 shows one such input-process-product analysis. Experience impact appears highly associated with the supervisors' estimates of the professional worth of the sessions. This is clearly not so for administrators as their estimates of professional worth tend to be low more often, regardless of the level of experience impact provided by session activities.

EXHIBIT 10
Harris' BRANCHING DIAGRAM
Illustration of Positional Analysis for
ASCD's San Francisco Conference



An effort to evaluate a statewide program of school improvement planning is being completed at this time by Jerry Christian (1981). He has utilized a branching technique among others to relate commitment of school officials (input) to extent of training provided (process) to implementation of new program plans (product). These data analyzed in this manner clearly support commitment of school officials as essential in making best use of inservice training to implement new programs.

Still another context for evaluation involved a survey of all school districts (Virginia, 1979) in the state of Virginia. Working with a state advisory committee we utilized rather simplistic survey procedures to secure data on current inservice education practices across the state. Branching diagram analysis was utilized as one of the analytical techniques. One diagram utilized data on the allocation of released time for inservice education on an input measure. It was determined that school-based inservice programs were not making efficient use of released time in promoting teacher involvement as well as were inservice programs organized in different ways. Other findings revealed inputs that were more likely to promote high experience impact activities in training programs (Harris, 1980).

Summary

In arguing for better, harder, more revealing evaluation of inservice education, I have suggested that viewing training operations in schools and colleges as systems is helpful. I've ignored data gathering problems in an effort to emphasize one way of using the "systems view" as a framework for analysis. In doing this, I've illustrated a variety of uses of my branching diagram analysis technique.*

Emphasizing a single technique is intended to stimulate its use. However, more importantly, I have tried to emphasize, by implication, several other ideas:

1. Relatively simple analytical techniques can suffice for many evaluation purposes.
2. Statistical analyses, while sometimes useful, are not necessary for multivariate analysis purposes.
3. A variety of kinds of data can be scaled for analysis of relationships.

*The reader who wishes to apply branching to selected training situations can gain further detail on procedures in Harris' (1980) chapter on evaluation of inservice programs. Appendices' material in that volume provides raw data for trying the techniques.

4. Analysis and interpretations must concentrate on a few selected, important and manageable factors.

In various ways I have referred to "practitioners," "evaluators," "researchers," and "participants" as though these were completely separate sets of people. In fact, these are better thought of as roles people play; for we are often multiple performers. As a closing proposition, I would argue that evaluation of inservice education should be a fully shared responsibility among administrators, trainers, leaders, participants, and evaluation specialists. Evaluation data and the findings derived will be better understood by those involved in the analytical process. Action decisions do not come from findings; they emerge out of interpretations which only those most directly involved in the inservice education operations can make. Commitment to improving ISE will be stronger among those who have been directly involved in the evaluation process.

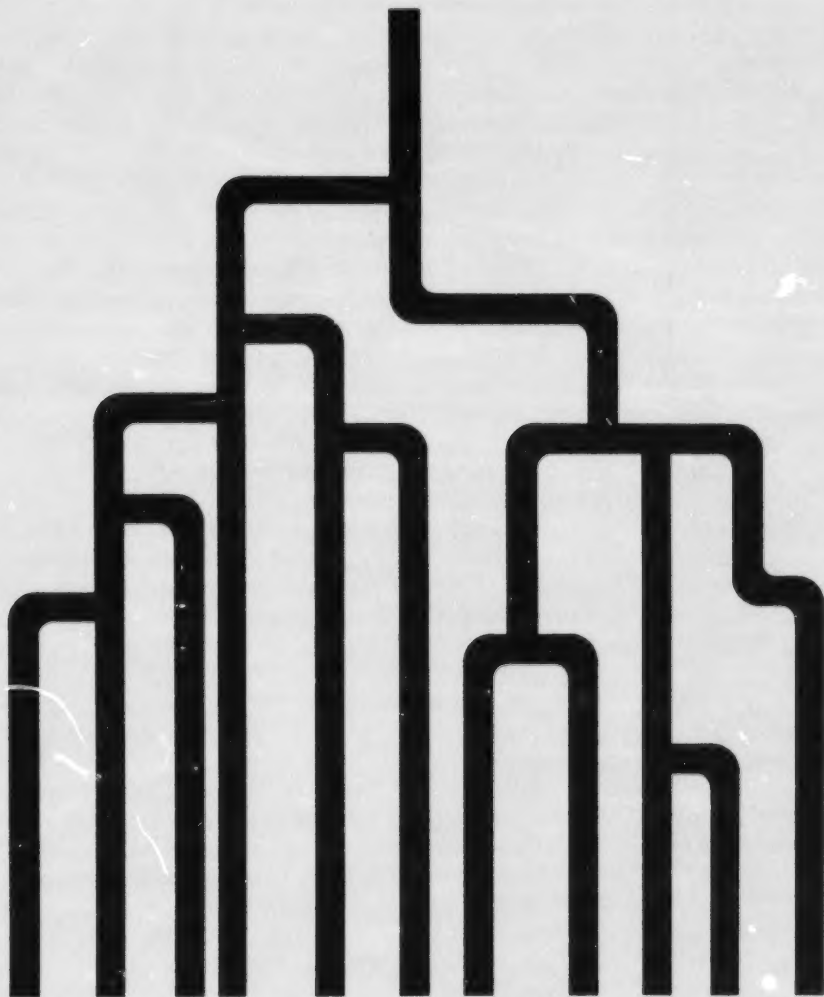
Evaluation is important as a guidance system leading to better inservice education. Without data we cannot see; without involvement in the evaluation process we will not see.

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Major Issues in Inservice Education



TRANSLATING PRIORITIES INTO ACTION: A PLANNING PROCESS

Speaker: Lilburn P. Hoehn
Professor of Education
Wright State University

In education, as well as some other organizations, planning, of any consequence, is usually undertaken in response to some type of financial emergency or in response to some outside pressure. Whatever the stimulator, the time for effective planning is not during an emergency because the decisions made during those times are frequently expedient and not made in accordance to some overall plan. It is difficult to remember the institutional mission when trying to make budget cuts or respond to pressure. However carefully or systematically they are developed, short-and long-range plans will not prevent the eruption of crises. Such plans can assist leaders in responding to these crises with some sense of purpose and some adherence to the primary mission of the organization. Without plans, responses to emergencies tend to take the course of least resistance which sometimes can alter priorities of the institutional mission.

In-depth systematic planning is of such importance that few organizations, businesses, or institutions can function near maximum effectiveness over extended periods of time without it. Business concerns which do not invest considerable time, energy, and money in short-and long-range planning may be doomed to ineffective operation, profit loss, or failure. For example, American automobile manufacturers should have noticed that, even in the sixties, many Americans expressed a desire for smaller, more economical cars. Surprisingly, even after the so-called oil crisis of 1973, the U.S. manufacturers did not respond to the very clear demand for smaller cars. Thus foreign manufacturers filled this void. Now domestic manufacturers are struggling to recapture part of that lost market. This problem may not have been avoided through good planning, but the severity of it may have been reduced.

The terminal objective of educational planning is to improve the quality of education by improving the quality of educational decision making. Much planning is done in schools but unfortunately some of that planning is haphazard and not continued to a point useful for improving decision making. Perhaps it is time that educators began to be serious about both short-and long-range planning. The planning process described in this paper and shown in flow chart form (see Figure 1) is a comprehensive, long-range model

which can be used to identify staff development needs for both curricular and instructional concerns. Generally, staff development is conducted in response to either curricular or instructional needs so it seems appropriate to focus on those two primary concerns. With minor alterations this model could also be used for designing competency based educational programs. Because the process described here is a detailed, lengthy process, its implementation requires a high level of commitment to the concept of planning and to the identification of staff development.

Rather than base decision making for instructional needs and, to some lesser extent, curricular needs on the perceptions of school personnel, this process begins with educational priorities of the school district. Even though the eventual implementation of programs to fulfill these priorities may be at the building level rather than districtwide, the starting point for this model is district priorities. This is not to suggest that the perceptions of teachers and others are not valuable and needed, but there are other starting points for identifying staff development needs. A number of steps in the model require intense involvement from teachers as well as other professional persons. One purpose of this paper is to suggest that in-depth planning can be based on school district goals and also involve teachers in a meaningful way.

Planning for Inservice Education

Since the major thrust of this paper is focused on improving decision making for staff development, it seems appropriate to provide the reader with this author's definition of staff development. It is perceived as something much broader than what is typically referred to as inservice education. Though it need not be defined that way, inservice education typically refers to a day or two set aside during the school year for teachers to participate in the activities of the day. While inservice days can be part of an overall staff development program, they do not meet the characteristics of a broadly conceived staff development program as these are indicated below:

1. Staff development should be based on both district priorities and the needs of teachers.
2. Staff development activities fulfilling a single goal can persist over a period of a year or more.
3. The implementation of staff development activities should be varied in terms of time, persons involved, and format.
4. A number of staff development activities as well as programs can be going on simultaneously.

To implement this process properly, some planning is necessary simply to put the process in motion. The first action is to decide what the educational priorities of the district are for the next three to five years. This decision requires broad based involvement from parents, teachers, and administrators. Since it may be wise to develop only one priority the first time through the process, the priorities could be ranked in order of importance to determine which should be developed first.

Following these decisions, two task forces should be appointed. The first is a development task force whose major function is to develop the priority through the entire process. The second is a reviewing task force whose job is to review the products of the development task force. Both of these task forces should consist of educators and should be chosen carefully for interest and skill as well as willingness to make a long-range commitment to the development work. The development task force should consider developing a "timeframe" which will help keep its efforts on task. Finally, all persons affected by this process should be informed in a clear, honest manner about the nature of the process.

Since district priorities were established and task forces were appointed prior to the actual development work, the first step in the process is to translate each selected priority into goals or some type of statements which imply action alternatives. This part of the process is the responsibility of the development task force, but the product is examined by the reviewing task force to determine whether these goals are actually representative of the priority. If the reviewing group does not agree, the goals must be reworked until agreement is reached. Perhaps this seems cumbersome, but seeking agreement and clarity and checking for gaps and overlaps at this early stage will pay dividends later.

Consensus

Once consensus on the relationship of the goals to the priority is reached, the goals should be ranked in terms of their perceived importance toward fulfilling the priority. This is an especially important step if a number of goals have been derived from the priority because it simply is not feasible to work with too many goals at one time. The next step, deriving objectives from the goals, will provide one criterion for determining how many goals are to be developed at one time or by one task force. If, for example, there are ten goals and ten objectives are derived from each goal, 100 objectives must be worked through the process. This is probably too many to develop at once so the task force may wish to limit the first analysis to only three or four goals.

As in any curriculum development process, the writing of objectives is simply extracting the components of the goal and stating these components in a more specific manner. The degree of specificity needed at this point is somewhat difficult to describe because the objectives must be stated specifically enough that performance standards can be developed, but not so narrowly that the number is mind boggling. After writing the objectives, student performance standards should be determined for each objective because further analysis is useless without standards to judge against later.

Since it is often difficult for developers to evaluate critically their own work, the reviewing task force is again asked to determine whether objectives are representative of the goal and to provide feedback on the performance standards. The first decision is one of making judgments against criteria such as clarity and measurability. The second one is based upon desired performance levels and thus is almost always a value decision even though some criteria could be developed and used. As in the previous review, the objectives must be reworked, if necessary, until consensus is reached.

Up to this point in the planning process, the effort has been directed toward preparing for context evaluation. The process began with a priority of concern to the school district and went through two translation and two review processes. The desired conditions are now stated in objectives which should be acceptable to teachers and administrators. Now the process of determining the actual conditions or context evaluation can begin.

Context Evaluation

The first step is determining if the objectives currently exist in school programs and the degree to which they exist. The breadth of this analysis will have to be determined by the nature of the priority. If, for example, the priority requires data from teachers of all grade levels, the analysis will be broader than if only teachers from primary grades are involved. A rating scale could be useful in assisting teachers and others in determining the degree of existence of these objectives in school programs. While the rating scale is important and should be devised carefully, even more important is the selection of those who will provide the information. Knowledge of the curriculum in appropriate areas must be the primary criterion for selecting those to participate in this part of the process. It is also a point in the process at which a high percentage of ultimate users can be involved. Such involvement is important simply because the users are the legitimate ones to be involved and because

they are much more likely to buy into the process and results if they are involved. Teachers, as the users of the results, will also have a greater understanding of the overall process from such involvement.

Not all affected persons have to be involved, but the number should be high enough that confidence can be placed in the information and in the acceptance of the decisions. Prior to the determination of the current existence of the objectives in school programs, the task force should set standards for comparative purposes. For example, a standard could be that 80 percent of those responding would have to indicate that a given objective existed before satisfaction is achieved. Because the selection of standards is a value decision, the reviewing task force should again provide feedback concerning the standards.

Student Performance

If satisfaction is achieved—that is, the objectives are already in programs—the next step is to assess student performance on those objectives. In some cases such data will already exist on students' performance especially if the objectives are related to an academic area. Recently administered standardized tests should be scrutinized for items which relate to the objectives under question. If such items are found and the task force is satisfied that they represent adequate measurement of the objectives, the data can be used. If not, assessment tools must be devised and administered. The results can then be compared with the standards set much earlier in the process. If the evidence indicates satisfaction with student achievement, the process ends because at this point there should be rather high confidence that this particular priority has been fully explored and that students are achieving desired results.

On the other hand, if decision makers are not satisfied with student performance, the process continues with an analysis to determine if the objectives are being implemented in the classrooms. The desire and importance have been verified, but students are not achieving the desired results; therefore, this step must be implemented carefully because teachers could be threatened if it is mishandled. There may be a number of ways these data can be gathered, but the most direct one is to seek information from the teachers, using questionnaires or conferences. Wherever possible an evaluation of the degree of implementation should be completed. Even the simple procedure of labeling objectives as having heavy, medium, or low emphasis in the curriculum could provide some useful information. Obviously self-report data leaves much to be desired; however, if teachers understand the purpose of the information and do not perceive a negative intent, they will probably be

more honest. Peers may be able to gather honest data more easily than administrators. But in any case, the method and who gathers the data should be thought out carefully. At this point the task force should know if low performance is due to low or non-implementation of the objectives under consideration.

If low or non-implementation is determined as the probable cause for low performance, further examinations to determine why this level of implementation exists must be undertaken. This may be one of the two most involved and difficult steps in the process, but one which must not be omitted. Some reasons for low or non-implementation might be:

1. A lack of awareness that such objectives existed or a lack of understanding of the importance attached to them.
2. A lack of interest on the part of teachers to implement the objectives.
3. A lack of skill to implement the objectives.
4. A lack of appropriate materials to support the learning activities.

These and other factors should be explored in an attempt to pinpoint the nature of the problem. The results may indicate a direction or emphasis for planning staff development.

The other direction, that of satisfaction, can be followed if it is determined that the objectives are being implemented. In reality, the task force will probably discover that both directions must be pursued. If, however, there is satisfaction that the objectives are being implemented, further examination must be conducted. Again, the causes could be many, including the lack of skill, lack of materials, lack of interest or the use of inappropriate methodologies. The focus now is upon the fact that objectives are being implemented, but there is dissatisfaction with the level of success which indicates a different condition than the lack of implementation. Both identify an area of instructional need but of a different type and may indicate a need for different types of staff development programs.

Needs and Priorities

Whatever the results, the task force should now have some confidence that staff development programs which reflect needs related to reaching school district priorities can be planned. Further, problems have been identified so that objectives for staff development can be written for those who need particular programs.

Before addressing the implementation of staff development programs, dissatisfaction with the existence of objectives in school programs must be addressed. If the objectives do not exist within school programs, a curricular problem has been identified. A committee can then be appointed to determine where and how these objectives fit into existing programs or whether new curriculum development efforts should be pursued. This process itself is staff development and may also lead to identification of additional staff development needs. Once the development decisions are made, the new objectives can be implemented and nothing further can be accomplished until student performance is assessed at some later time. Such assessment would automatically engage the other side of the process beginning with the determination of satisfaction with student performance.

Once appropriate staff development objectives have been identified and written, implementation can be designed. This is the point at which some innovative thinking can make a difference. Typically, staff development has been implemented in the form of one, two, or more inservice days during the school year, and there is a place for that type of activity. However, the type of staff development which may be needed after this long, careful analysis process probably cannot be implemented through the traditional type of inservice scheduling. The results of this process may indicate a need for projects which vary in terms of time, persons, and format. Four or five activities can be going on simultaneously and differing in duration; therefore, varied implementation models must be employed. One group may work on an activity for a few hours per month for a year or more; another group may only need to meet for three or four sessions. Others may be able to take corrective action simply by having a matter called to their attention; still others may want to pursue independent activities to correct the identified problem.

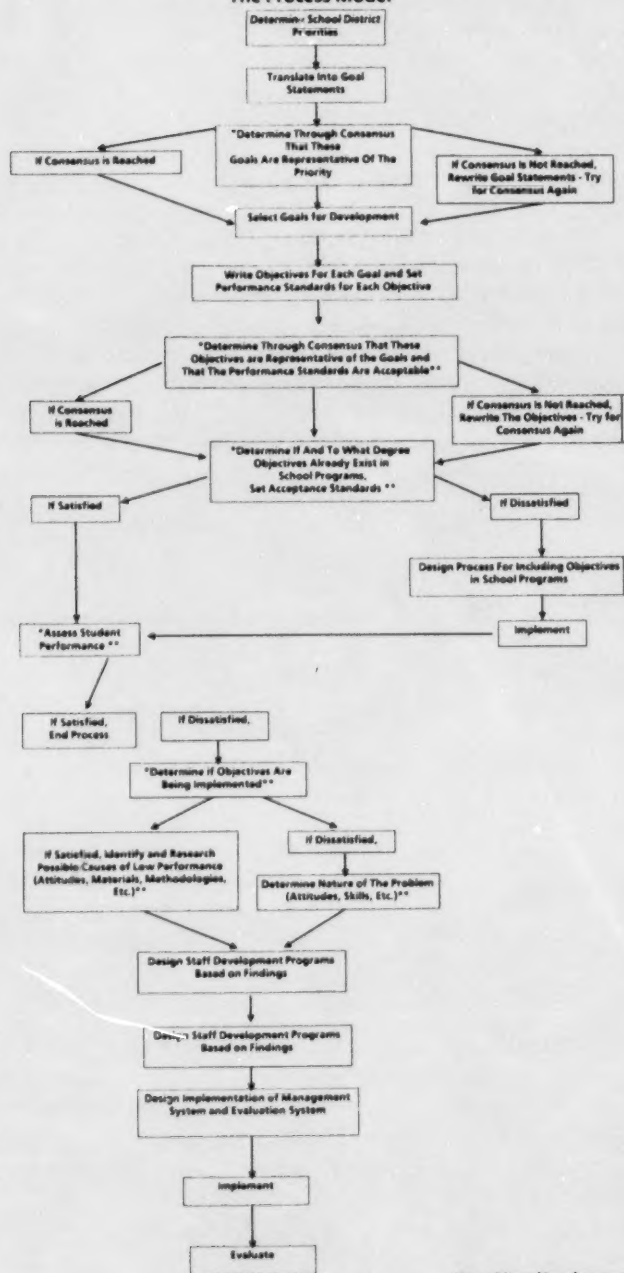
Summary

It is important to remember that the process just described would need to be used with each priority the school district wished to develop. School districts interested in the type analysis just described must be willing to make a commitment to long-range planning. Individual leaders and others involved must regard the process seriously as reflected through a strong task orientation. Leaders should take note that while the process is designed to identify needs related to staff development for both instruction and curriculum, the manner of implementation is very important. The

process can be implemented in a humane way or a nonhumane way; and the one chosen, purposely or inadvertently, will affect both the attitudes about the process and the outcomes. Some teachers may not support the identified needs for various reasons, one of which is the perception that something is being forced on them. If, however, the process was used properly—that is, teachers were involved throughout the process—this perception should not be a prevalent one.

The mix between fulfilling institutional goals and individual needs must be developed throughout, and teachers must be involved at those points where decisions which affect them directly are made. If such a mix is found, it is likely that organizational health will be good. The process is made easier through the use of systems analysis which for this process refers mainly to clear identification of tasks, differential assignment to those tasks, working with a time line, and following a specific mode. Finally, for success, this process must be supported totally in terms of time, money, and other resources by administrative personnel.

FIGURE 1
The Process Model



*Broad Based Involvement

**Formative Evaluation

PROCESS STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE STAFF DEVELOPERS

Speakers: JoAnne L. Vacca and Richard T. Vacca
Professors of Education
Kent State University

What makes a staff developer effective? According to the results of a recently completed study (Vacca, 1981), there are certain observable characteristics which apply to staff developers who are perceived by teachers as effective leaders. These characteristics fall into four major areas: Content Delivery, Personal Influence, Professional Competence, and Arrangements. The following process strategies are techniques which we have used in staff development and have found to be effective (Vacca, 1981). They are divided into the major areas which evolved from the analysis of over 1,000 critical incidents collected from teachers in six school districts around the country.

I. Area A: Content Delivery

- a. Involves the participants actively in the topic.
 1. Brainstorms.
 2. Encourages open-ended discussions.
 3. Facilitates group interactions.
- b. Relates the topic directly (through examples) to the classroom.
 1. Uses role-playing and simulation activities.
 2. Uses visuals and handouts.
 3. Uses demonstration teaching in classrooms.
 4. Uses videotapes of actual lessons.
- c. Provides materials or ideas for materials useful in a classroom situation. Uses hands-on activities which can range from teachers adapting a technique to fit their students' needs (such as a reading guide) to a series of materials-producing workshops.

II. Area B: Personal Influence

- a. Displays a positive attitude and pleasant disposition.
 1. Interacts with teachers prior to presentation (learns some names).
 2. Keeps teachers on task during small-group work.
 3. Listens for feedback throughout and after a session.

4. Maintains a sense of humor.
 - b. Is sensitive to the environment or dynamics within the group.
 1. Plans "gripe" sessions which do not dominate a program.
 2. Digresses from prepared presentation to respond to a teachable moment.
 3. Responds to body language.
 - c. Answers questions directly and patiently.
 1. Respects the audience in order to get its respect.
 2. One brusque reply to a question (whether or not it is rude or argumentative) may turn the group against you.
- III. Area C: Professional Competence
- a. Is well informed and well organized.
 1. Knows why and how to teach reading in content areas.
 2. Shares an outline or agenda, either verbal or written.
 3. Provides a bibliography of professional sources.
 - b. Has a purpose in mind and adheres to the task at hand.
 1. Keeps the proceedings moving and never goes overtime.
 2. For those who want to continue, does so informally.
 - c. Conveys explanations clearly.
 1. "Walks" teachers through directions, explaining them fully.
 2. Avoids assumptive teaching.
- IV. Area D: Arrangements
- a. Arranges to assess the needs of the group in advance. Plans for informal/formal needs assessment prior to meeting participants. If no assessment has been attempted, assesses needs on the spot. Brainstorms at the outset in large or in small groups. Writes all ideas related to perceived needs on board, organizes them into categories. Then selects one category and develops it. The key is in anticipating certain categories of needs in advance.

- b. Provides options in organization matters. Have some options ready...especially if something goes wrong. Where can you get more chairs? If there are too many people in the room, where else may they go? If there are a few who have recently heard you and were "forced" to attend...can you suggest a feasible alternative for them?

How you work with teachers during staff development is as important as the content or topic of the session. Too often, in our desire to get information across, we rush ahead before the teachers are ready to actively participate. As inservice leaders we need to create relaxed settings, allay fears and discuss problems during those first minutes or hours of staff development that may be necessary to "unfreeze." Here is a sample triad of activities appropriate for this purpose:

- Create conceptual conflict to arouse curiosity about the topic. Present teachers with a situation that will cause puzzlement, doubt, surprise, perplexity, contradiction, or ambiguity. For example, a situation that might challenge their present concept of reading involves a 15-year-old student who reads text material with perfect oral pronunciation but near zero comprehension. Once aroused, the teachers will be motivated to seek information to resolve the conflict.
- Set up several learning activity centers with examples of content area reading activities. Have teachers follow a mini-schedule in which they work through all centers in rotation. Allow about ten minutes at each, signaling the switch with a bell or timer.
- Set up a hypothetical situation. Describe it to the whole group in a concise manner. (It's 1997 and water sources have been discovered in abundance in all parts of this continent, including barren desert areas. How would this discovery change life as we know it?) Divide participants into groups of three or four. Allow about five minutes for group discussion, then pool answers, perhaps forming categories of statements on the board. As a follow-up, form small groups and distribute to each a problem related to teaching reading in each con-

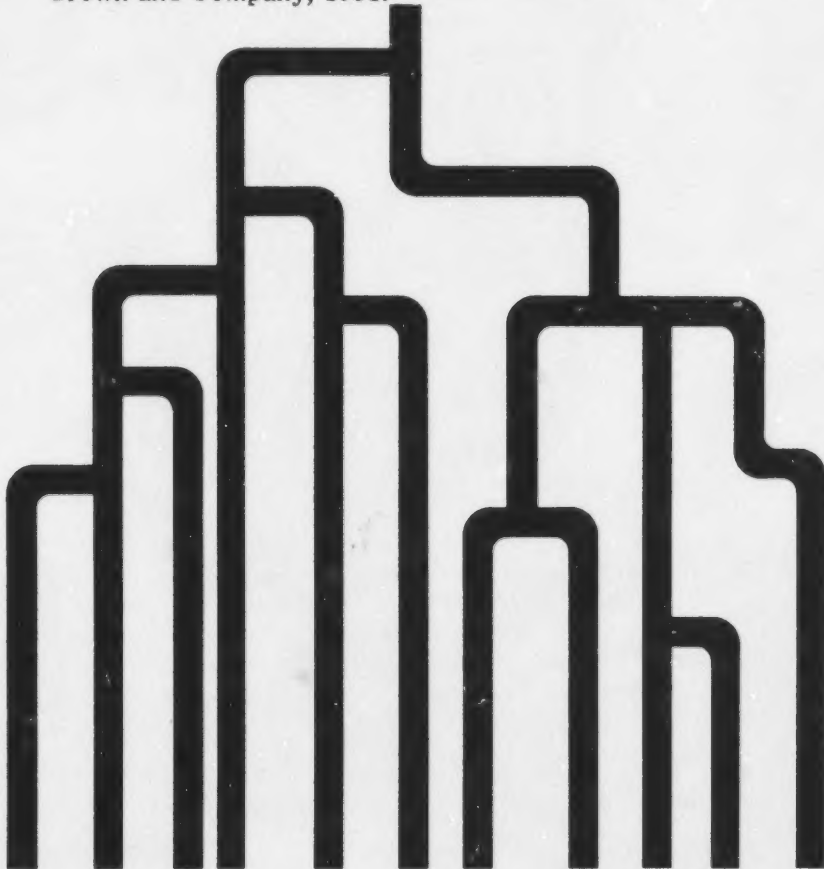
tent area. Be sure to allow enough time to review each group's answers.

Staff development is part of a change process; no single technique will be effective in all situations. Nevertheless, there are process strategies such as those we have described that teachers consistently associate with an effective staff developer.

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IMPROVING SCHOOL PRACTICES THROUGH PRINCIPALS' INSERVICE PROGRAM

Speakers: James LaPlant
Professor of Education
University of Cincinnati

Gerald Prince
Assistant Superintendent
Worthington City School District

Harold Rowe
Superintendent
Westerville City School District

We have three objectives for this session. First, I will share some basic concepts which are a part of the Principals' Inservice Program. Second, I will share data which cause me to feel that the principal has been overlooked as a potential positive force in the improvement of school programs.

The /I/D/E/A/* Principals' Inservice Program had its start in the 1978-79 school year when three pilot groups of principals—representing urban, rural, and suburban school systems—tested many of the activities that eventually were included in the program. By 1979-80, 14 people were trained as facilitators who operated in ten sites with a total of 190 principals. My job as program developer was to observe each group at least once, and I observed two groups every time they met. The purpose of that monitoring was to modify the materials. In 1980-81, we trained 40 facilitators who tested the project with 500 principals. Seven of the ten sites that started in 1979 continued into the second year.

Let me point to some particular ideas which were essential to understand the Principals' Inservice Program. First of all, we are assuming that the school is the unit of change in the educational system. We are also assuming that the principal should be a prime mover in the school improvement process. Another assumption is that a quality school is one in which all people—staff as well as students—are continually learning and improving. Therefore, the intent was to develop a program which would help principals improve their professional competencies so that they could, in turn,

*Institute for the Development of Educational Activities.

improve school programs for students. Also, the program would not duplicate traditional inservice formats, and it would be conducted locally over an extended period of time. The program was to complement other staff inservice programs offered by professional associations, state departments, and universities.

The two-year program focuses on four outcomes. The first outcome is personal professional development. Each principal, as a member of a support group, is asked to design, implement, and evaluate a personal professional development plan to increase his or her leadership capability. The second outcome is that the principal will design, implement, and evaluate a school improvement project which includes staff involvement in addressing an identified need. The third outcome is that the support group members will provide assistance and encouragement to each other. The support group is six to ten principals who meet with a trained facilitator to engage in activities designed to move them toward the development of the four outcomes. The group also gives participants some immediate help on problems. (See the in-basket problem solving technique in Appendix A.)

The fourth outcome of the program is that the principal adopts continuous improvement as a way of life and accepts responsibility for that process. (You can get the flavor of the program by looking at the ten statements in the assumptions check list in Appendix B. The degree to which you agree with the assumptions listed would be an indication of whether or not this program would fit your needs. If you had serious disagreement with more than two or three of the statements, the program probably would not meet your needs.)

If you are interested in exploring this program further, you should discuss the idea with some other principals and your school district administrators to get approval to begin to engage in the process. It would require that the group and the school district identify a facilitator who would undergo a two-week /I/D/E/A/-training session. There is a training fee as well as a fee to cover the cost of reproducing the materials. The reason for this is that /I/D/E/A/ and the Kettering Foundation are developmental organizations, and we are in the process of moving the project from a development stage to a dissemination stage. As we do this, the dissemination activities will be taken over by the Center for Administrator Inservice at the University of Cincinnati and, therefore, all training sessions need to be self-supporting.

Participants

The second task was to share some data which we have collected from the principals who are participating this year. These

data were collected from the 1980-81 group of principals at the beginning of their program. We sent questionnaires to approximately 500 principals, and so far 245 responses have been tabulated. The principals participating this year represent the entire range of experience and types of school.

A number were first-year principals and approximately a third had five years experience. On the other end of the scale, one-fifth of the principals have been in their present position more than 15 years. The principals represent schools of all different sizes. We have principals from very small schools with staffs of 10 or under and less than 30 pupils, and we have a good representation of schools who have 30 to 60 staff members. We also have some 21 schools represented who have over 60 staff members and over 2500 students.

Over 90 percent of the principals reported having no teaching responsibilities and less than a third had an assistant principal. They head elementary schools, middle schools, and high schools. One interesting point was that more than one third of the principals reported that their school had some unique characteristic such as team teaching, an alternative school, nongraded, or Individually Guided Education (IGE) programs.

Satisfaction with Principalship

When we look at the principals' responses to a series of statements asking about their satisfaction with the principalship, a couple of ideas emerge. First, the principals are very positive about their selection of the principalship as a career; more than 80 percent of them said if they had to choose careers again they would probably choose to become a principal and that the problems of the job were really challenges that can become opportunities. In summary, contrary to some characterizations of principals as being people who are very negative and do not see themselves as being responsible for leadership in the school, these principals appear to be saying that they are positive, and they see themselves as having some responsibility for leadership.

There was another set of statements on which principals were divided. My interpretation at this point is that these issues suggest some problem areas that need to be looked at further. The issues where there was a division of thought were such things as too many problems and not enough time to be concerned with improving the instructional program. Another concern was that the principal's position is a busy one, but a very lonely one. These three items relate to the four objectives that I mentioned before. The loneliness we hope will be remedied through the support group outcome; the

problems would relate to an activity in the support group, namely, the in-basket problem solving; and not having enough time to be concerned about the instructional program is exactly the problem we are trying to address in the school improvement project.

Perception of Job

We ask the principals to indicate the most positive aspects of their job, the most important job aspects in priority order, and the least important job aspects. Principals see the success with staff and success with students as being the most positive aspect of the principalship. They also saw those two kinds of job aspects as being the most important. Running a poor third was success with school programs and curriculum; less than half of the principals indicated this as being a positive aspect. Success with parents and community ran fourth. On the other side of the coin, the least important aspect reported by principals involved doing paperwork.

When principals were asked the reasons why they took part in the Principals' Inservice Program, 79 percent of them said to improve professional knowledge and about 80 percent of them said to share problems with colleagues. In connection with my previous comments about improving school programs, only 22 percent of them reported that this was the reason why they took part in the inservice program.

We asked the principals to whom they go for advice about a problem. Most of the time they go to someone in the school. Central administrative persons were consulted by only 16 percent and other principals were mentioned by 18 percent of the principals.

Views of Education

We asked a series of questions about the principals' opinions regarding the current state of education and the future prospects. Principals feel strongly that schools can develop more effective means for meeting the needs of students; they felt they could increase their potential to improve their schools, and they also felt that a successful school had to include active participation of the parents in the education of the children. There was disagreement on whether or not schools were doing as well as they could under current conditions, and there was disagreement whether or not schools would become even more standardized in their operation in the future.

We are still receiving responses from other principals which will be added to this group analysis. Further analysis will allow us to make more definitive statements. The findings so far indicate that we have been overlooking prospects that are inherent in the

principalship for the improvement of school programs. We tend to fall into the trap of thinking of the principal as a harried person who is not interested in school improvement. These data would suggest the opposite. The principal is very positive and accepts the responsibility for school improvement. We need to find more effective ways of helping that person achieve school improvement.

Appendix A **"In-basket" Exercise**

- Activity:** A group of colleagues listens to an administrative problem which a principal has recently experienced or is presently facing. After describing the situation, the principal asks a question or questions on which he or she wants assistance. The principal who is presenting the in-basket problem may want some discussion of one or more alternatives for the purpose of understanding the rationales. The principal closes the discussion by thanking the group.
- Goal:** To provide a positive, nonthreatening source of assistance for principals regarding administrative problems.
- Subgoal 1:** To increase skills in analyzing administrative situations.
- Subgoal 2:** To use actual rather than simulated or contrived problems.
- Subgoal 3:** To develop a sense of trust, open communications, and positive reinforcement among colleagues.
- Subgoal 4:** To broaden the range of alternative solutions which might be considered.
- Subgoal 5:** To respect the ultimate choice of the individual facing the particular situation.
- Subgoal 6:** To understand and appreciate the rationale underlying each suggestion.
- Subgoal 7:** To value the experiences of others.
- Subgoal 8:** To incorporate what can be learned through the experiences of others into our own behavior when appropriate.

Guidelines

1. The decision to present an in-basket problem belongs to the individual principal.

2. The description of the problem should include the essential elements of the situation, that is, those elements which would need to be considered in a solution.
3. Close the description with your question or questions. A more focused request will likely bring forth helpful ideas.
4. The group response is in three parts:
 - a. ask clarifying questions to ensure an adequate description,
 - b. brainstorm a wide range of alternatives, and then
 - c. individuals present their individual response to the question.
5. The discussion should focus on positive and creative problem solving. The group should capitalize on the differences rather than trying to get agreement on every point.
6. The purpose of the exercise is not to prove one approach is the best one. It is important that group members feel they are properly treated even though they have different views.
7. Ultimately, the individual faced with the problem needs to make the decision. This forum may cause individuals to consider more alternatives, understand the rationale of various approaches, consider the probable outcomes of each possible choice, and feel good about the final decision.
8. It is appropriate to update colleagues on progress regarding an in-basket item.

Appendix B

Assumptions Check

Directions

Below are some statements which represent assumptions about principals in school systems. As a means of checking one's own ideas about inservice for principals, read each statement carefully and mark "agree," "disagree," or "unsure."

- | | Agree | Disagree | Unsure |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. There are principals who desire to improve educational programs for students; therefore, they are willing to commit professional energy to this goal. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

- | | Agree | Disagree | Unsure |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 2. It is important that school systems approve and support improvement as a part of the principal's job description: therefore, appropriate prior support of the principals' participation will be sought. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 3. The criterion for any activity is improving the educational program for students: therefore, any school improvement plan needs to affect what happens to student. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 4. Principals operate in an environment which imposes obligations and expectations on them: therefore, principals must be able to convert these pressures into opportunities or, at least, be able to withstand those pressures which would be detrimental to quality education. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 5. Learning is facilitated by interactions among persons sharing a sense of trust and openness: therefore, the support group is used to develop a climate of mutual support and growth. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 6. Principals are frequently reluctant to seek advice/assistance from subordinates or superiors. Additionally, conversations with peers tend to be sporadic, if not superficial, when there is a hidden spirit of competition: therefore, the collegial support group values each participant as an important partner in the process. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

- | | Agree | Disagree | Unsure |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 7. Learning takes place in a style appropriate to the individual learner: therefore, there will be alternate ways for principals to engage in the professional development and school-improvement phases. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 8. The support group serves as a model of how to work with others—planning, communicating, training, coordinating, and evaluating: therefore, sharing with peers for the purpose of constructive criticism is a valuable resource. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 9. Inservice education is more than information gathering. It is participation: therefore, improvement efforts are monitored and shared with others. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 10. Continuous improvement is applicable to inservice education as well as to the school's educational program: therefore, the Principals' Inservice Program is not a finished product but a continuous process. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

The framework for the Principals' Inservice Program is comprised of these assumptions. We believe they are comprehensive and representative of a philosophical position regarding the principalship. It is recommended that those interested in the Principals' Inservice Program check their own assumptions against these. The extent of agreement is an indication of the likelihood that the program will be useful and satisfying.

TEACHER CENTERED INSERVICE

Facilitator: C. William Phillips
Consultant
Office of Inservice Education
Ohio Department of Education

This was a sharing session. Participants were asked to bring ideas or examples of successful inservice activities. Listed below are the ideas that were presented.

Betty Southall, Willoughby-Eastlake City School District, describes a teacher development inservice session in which a movie on development of one word into phrases and sentences was used. The film on word development and schematic webbing was made by Bill Halloran of the Learning Institute.

Chris Snyder, Avon Lake City School District, also mentioned Halloran's programs.

Joan Collins, Stow City School District, cited the P.K. Younge lab school model in introducing developmental reading programs for elementary and secondary students to an inservice session attended by the district teachers and administrators. She mentioned that Gordon Lawrence was the developer of the teacher education modules for use with individuals or small groups, and that the modules may be available from the State Department of Education of Florida. Another suggestion was the idea of replacing staff meetings at the building level with inservice meetings which include breakfast on alternate months to allow teacher sharing of equipment and good ideas.

Leo Anglin, Kent State University, suggested a Teacher Fair in which teachers shared ideas and projects in a group setting. In this way individual teachers were given recognition. He added that coordinators of the fair took slide photographs which were then circulated in individual schools. Leo also described a session in which film clips from 12 movies were shown. Teachers attending felt the session was a definite improvement over catalog descriptions of movies.

Gay Cox, Claymont City School District, contributed the idea of Reading Recipe Cards in which teachers described an idea and materials and equipment necessary for its implementation on a 5x7 inch card. The ideas were then duplicated, bound in spiral notebook and distributed to all teachers as a Reading Resource Notebook.

Sharon Fox, Butler County Joint Vocational School District, discussed a Math Sharing Session in which all teachers who taught math displayed curricular materials. From this session a resource list of "who had what" was then compiled and distributed to others.

Bernie Sellers, Delaware City School District, described a Media Fair which included an introduction to new equipment, representatives from companies producing AV equipment, computers, and software, as well as Cantor's Assertive Discipline movie and works of Glasser and Lawrence. The session was open to all county teachers. He also suggested that both required and voluntary inservice sessions be used by districts so that both teachers' and building goals can be met. Another suggestion was that college credit be offered for countywide sharing sessions held in school districts.

Jane Applegate, Franklin County Teacher Center, discussed the Be A Teacher Consultant training sessions which enabled participants to identify their consulting strengths, assisted them in implementing their skills, and facilitated sharing of experiences and new ideas. The training sessions led to the development of a Talented Educator Resource Bank through which individual requests for information are met by drawing on contributed talents and skills of educators. Jane also displayed the community resource guide, People, Places and Paraphernalia, developed by two teacher consultants who scoured the city and county identifying resources, pamphlets, speakers, and tours which teachers might use to supplement class instruction. She added that two copies of People, Places and Paraphernalia are sent to each building.

Adelle Baker, Cleveland State University, described a cooperative Ohio Department of Education (ODE) and Cleveland Public Schools Institute grant which enabled teachers to obtain assistance, equipment, and materials as well as graduate credit for a learning styles inservice education course.

Jane Hange, Franklin County Teacher Center, outlined a spring planning session of teachers and university personnel which led to the offering of a university course for graduate credit during fall and winter quarters for 60 teachers in two school districts. A support group formed from teachers taking the course continued to meet to reinforce learning style implementation in the classroom.

Joan Inglis, University of Toledo, cited the possibility of collecting unsold magazines and books from newstands, attaching laminated covers, and distributing them to schools.

Jim Gress, University of Toledo, added that during a summer institute each teacher planned different activities which were documented through one page reports sent to other teachers in attendance. The use of the reports led to recognition of and assistance with teacher problems as they occurred.

Nancy Achor, Kettering City School District, described weekend courses offered by Wright State University on three consecutive

Friday evenings and Saturdays for three graduate credit hours. Tickets for the courses were purchased by districts and distributed by administrators to interested teachers. High levels of participation by certain districts or buildings led to increased allocation of tickets at subsequent offerings.

Marilyn Selfridge, Ashland College, outlined a two-credit hour workshop offered in the Lorain City Schools titled Reading in the Content Areas. The format was three day-long sessions given one month apart which involved teaming district and university personnel.

Charles Cox, Baldwin Wallace College, discussed community participation on eight task forces and in course development of graduate course attended by administrators, teachers, and community members for which community members received continuing education credit and certificates. With information collected by volunteers in from separate neighborhoods, Community Resource Guides were compiled and distributed in each of the four areas represented.

Mike Fuller, Miami University, highlighted the importance of intermittent meetings throughout the school year for development of a graded course of study funded by ODE teacher moneys rather than the traditional summer session.

Jim Malanowski and Kim Nagy, Wood County Teacher Center, discussed the use of minigrants, a two to four week professional development period with release from teaching enabling teachers to pursue individual projects. Copies of the creative projects are then circulated throughout the districts and participants are encouraged to write their own proposals for teacher grants. Kim also mentioned collecting parent advice on grade card design and school activities.

Inez McClure, Lakota Local School District (Butler County), attracted teachers to a workshop on the production of learning centers by offering door prizes to teachers who bring ideas to the workshop. The door prizes were donated by merchants.

Ed Taylor, Mapleton City School District, suggested using newspapers as a type of inservice education.

Debbie Retting, Copley-Fairlawn City School District, told about Gabe Campbell from Akron University who speaks on hemispheric functioning—right, left brain learning.

Gerald Bosh, Morrow County Board of Education, discussed a voucher system for teachers to select three programs to attend throughout the year.

Jerry Sturm, Wright State, contributed the idea of a ticket sale for attendance at a variety of workshops. This allows teachers to attend programs of their choice paid for by the district.

Beth Cupp, I-270 Teacher Center, described teachers exchanging classes for a day. She mentioned that a visitation day in industry and university was arranged for secondary teachers. The I-270 Teacher Center organized all-day visitations for other teachers to come in and observe.

Keith Hardow, Cleveland City School District, described a film called Parent Crunch from The Heart of Teaching series which deals with using parents as consultants. He also described how teachers trained in particular areas served as resources for other teachers in the building.

Anne Cassing, Willoughby-Eastlake City School District, told of released day visitations by teachers into the community to get to know more of local businesses.

Carolyn Coil, Educational TV for Southeastern Ohio, suggested a contact with Instructional TV Agencies. She also related a description of free time during the day for inservice programs while students attended an assembly.

Mary Place Thomas, Youngstown State University, contributed the idea of evening staff meetings in people's homes.

Betty Ford, Ohio University, discussed administrators or consultants replacing the classroom teacher so the teacher can make visitations and observations.

Jim Whiteman, Fulton County Board of Education, described an opportunity for teacher talk time, a meeting with no agenda. He also mentioned teacher support groups to develop personal and professional goals.

Greta Pate, Willoughby-Eastlake City School District, suggested a time for counselors to get together for sharing and discussion. Greta added that Mark Savitkas, psychologist at Northeast Ohio University of Medicine, conducts two-day workshops for counselors.

Jacqueline Rowser, Kent State University, cited the possibility of individual buildings deciding yearlong needs and sharing these among buildings.

Nancy Karabinus, Cuyahoga County Board of Education, advocated a hot line for classroom problems. Teams of teachers would make suggestions for solving problems.

Shirley Kelly, Miamisburg City School District, announced a values clarification film was available entitled What You Are Is Where You Were When.

Bill Phillips, Ohio Department of Education, described a buddy support system for first year teachers. He also volunteered personnel from the Department to serve as consultants.

IMPLICATIONS FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT IN THE 1980s

Speaker: James C. King
Professor of Education
The University of Akron

There is both good news and bad regarding local inservice offerings in today's schools. The good news is that administrators and board members almost universally seem to subscribe to the need for professional growth opportunities. The bad news is that their support for these programs appears to be for all of the wrong reasons.

In a four-year analysis of current inservice practices, this author came to the disturbing conclusion that support of inservice education has been based upon ten false assumptions:

1. Most teachers are incompetent in at least one area of professional preparation and require remedial help in order to attain a level of satisfactory performance.

2. These alleged areas of teacher inadequacy can best be identified and prescribed for by their administrators and supervisors.

3. Because teachers are unaware of, or indifferent to, their inadequacies, they will not participate in inservice programs unless coerced or rewarded.

4. Because of limited funds, local inservice programs must focus only upon remedying the most critical deficiencies affecting the largest number of teachers.

5. Teachers grow professionally only through formal inservice activities.

6. To be most effective, inservice education must be presented in a formal school setting.

7. The most effective inservice activity is a large group presentation to the entire faculty.

8. The most effective motivators for teachers are extrinsic rewards or the sheer satisfaction of learning.

9. Because they are adults, teachers are not as motivated and do not learn as readily as children; thus, inservice expectations must be modest.

10. Teacher training is solely the responsibility of the university, and boards of education should minimize their use of local resources for this purpose.

Now for the brighter side of this analysis of current inservice trends. It also revealed evidence of a reform movement by responsive schools in which inservice education appears to be based upon newer and more valid assumptions. The following assumptions

are interdependent, and their individual and collective effects will be to transform local inservice programs from a demeaning contractual obligation to a teacher's most cherished fringe benefit.

1. Most teachers are competent and seek to further develop their competencies in order to acquire the self-esteem, peer esteem, and job satisfaction necessary to make their careers fulfilling facets of their lives.

Inservice education, therefore, will be approached in requested areas of teacher growth, and participation will be evidence of a teacher's commitment to his or her profession.

2. Most teachers are keenly aware of their own strengths and weaknesses and will seek to further develop strengths and ameliorate weaknesses if permitted to do so in a nonthreatening setting.

Inservice programs will be based upon needs, wants, and problems cooperatively identified by all the certified personnel, as they assess their own performance and that of their colleagues.

Planning and implementation will also be shared by teachers, supervisors, and administrators, from the original identification of the need to the ultimate evaluation of the inservice efforts.

3. Most teachers are willing to participate voluntarily in inservice activities which they perceive as relevant to their personal or professional growth needs.

From a variety of professional growth opportunities, teachers will select those of greatest individual appeal. A wide range of topics and instructional modes will accommodate individual differences. Teachers with unique interests and needs will be supported in their individual and small group learning activities.

Recognizing the esteem needs and professional pride of teachers, local schools will place greater emphasis upon voluntary participation and upon intrinsic rewards. Where feasible, local resources will be committed to provide travel, registration fees, tuition, visitations, release time, speakers, consultants, physical facilities, and other components of comprehensive inservice programming.

4. Teachers function as whole individuals. Their effectiveness is dependent not only upon knowledge and skills, but upon mental and physical states as well. Any activity with a potential for broadening the person is a defensible inservice objective. Beyond career concerns, this might include topics from any of the other six areas of adult life; namely, family, leisure, art, health, religion, and citizenship.

5. Teachers learn constantly through a wide variety of media and experiences.

Although formal inservice presentations will continue to be developed around common concerns, interests, and problems of teachers, the central emphasis in local inservice programs will shift to facilitating the individual self-improvement efforts of each teacher.

6. Adults learn through interactions with a wide variety of individuals and organizations, both within and beyond the school.

Teachers will be encouraged to participate in any groups which would enhance their professional or personal qualifications. The concept of evaluating teacher performance will be expanded to recognize the growth efforts of teachers, including their respective participation in, and contribution to, noneducational activities or agencies.

7. The most effective inservice program is that which provides self-improvement for individual teachers by whatever means is appropriate.

Evaluation of inservice benefits will be based upon the extent to which individual needs are met and individual expectations are satisfied, rather than upon how many teachers were involved.

8. Teachers are motivated to learn for the satisfaction they subsequently derive from utilizing that which they have learned.

Emphasis will be placed upon inservice approaches which involve not only the imparting of information or development of skill but also providing opportunities for the recipients to make application of that which they have learned.

9. Because they are adults, teachers sense more relevance and purpose in their learning experiences and are thus more motivated than are children. The wealth of experience they have had, and their pedagogical exposure to various learning media, permit them to benefit from many learning modes that could not be used with children.

Inservice planners will capitalize upon this sophistication to use the most imaginative, stimulating, and appropriate media and instructional approaches available, ranging from gaming exercises to computer based instruction.

10. Professional salaries often constitute as much as 80 percent of local expenditures; thus the most direct means for a board of education to protect its substantial investment in personnel is for it to assure the continuing improvement and growth of these professionals.

With this new awareness, boards of education will come to regard inservice expenditures as a prudent investment in quality education.

TEACHING CONCEPTS: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Speaker: Thomas Gibney
Professor of Education
The University of Toledo

The research literature is far from conclusive about the relationships between teacher concepts as evidenced by specific teacher behaviors and student performance or attainment. For example, Berliner (1976) has identified many impediments to research on teacher effectiveness. Other researchers have offered criticisms about the lack of consistent results from studies of teacher variables and student outcomes (Doyle, 1978; Shavelson & Dempsey, 1976) and the flaws of research procedures in process-product studies (Heath & Nielson, 1974). On the other hand, Gage (1977) has offered a strong defense of such research and has stated "we do have some relationships between teacher behavior and pupil achievement and attitudes on which a scientific basis for the art of teaching may be erected". Medley (1977) has made a rigorous review of process-product research on teacher effectiveness and rightfully claims that "no serious student of teaching can afford to be ignorant of the findings produced by research in teacher effectiveness". All of the many writers addressing the subject cannot be mentioned, but the comprehensive volume on the appraisal of teaching by Borich (1977) and another by Peterson and Walberg (1979) are illustrative.

Obviously, teacher effectiveness research in undergraduate teacher education is possible and, although complex, it must be attempted. Teacher educators do not lack the ability to acquire the knowledge and to select the instruments and techniques for making evaluative research efforts. They usually need, however, some external stimulus and resources to pursue such activities.

There is limited research or evaluation findings relative to the body of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values needed by persons preparing to be teachers in Ohio schools. The new Ohio Standards (1975) refer frequently to "knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values" needed by teacher preparation undergraduates, but these are not specified in the Standards; rather, they are left too much to the interpretation of each teacher preparatory institution.

The Ohio Standards themselves were developed through a comprehensive, statewide process involving all types of professional educators, but the Standards do not dictate any specific teacher education process or curriculum to obtain a predetermined product. More important, there is presently no way to know if persons prepared in any one of a wide diversity of teacher education

programs statewide, thought to meet the Standards, do possess and can demonstrate the proper "knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values" necessary for successful teachers and training.

The Standards are a combination of tradition and consensus. They are believed to have a sound research and theoretical base, but this base has not been empirically demonstrated through any examination of the students or graduates from programs considered for approval under the Standards. Further, there has been no attempt to identify an empirical base by establishing the basic concepts inherent in the "knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values" referred to in the Standards.

Ohioans need to establish the broad, underlying concepts inherent in the phrase "knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values." The general public, parents, legislators, and many professional educators are asking to be shown some indication or proof that those prepared to teach can indeed demonstrate various teaching knowledge, skills, attitudes and values at acceptable levels which reflect the concepts or constructs of effective teachers and teaching. It is believed that such concepts exist, but they have not been empirically identified nor have adequate indicators been established for each concept, as well as descriptors provided to gauge the degree to which the indicators are demonstrated in the teaching process. The past research and evaluation efforts of teaching effectiveness have revealed some information, but these do not provide us with a clear base for process-product evaluation efforts; and, certainly, teacher educators and others have not been able to agree, to any considerable degree, upon the evidence of the "effective teacher." It is increasingly assumed that such evidence has to be related to pupil behavior and outcomes, but efforts to trace effective teacher performance back from satisfactory pupil educational gains and behavior is mainly discussed and rarely demonstrated.

Further elaboration of the above thesis could be made, but the conclusion is inescapable. The Standards need a process-product model to verify and validate the concepts alluded to in the Standards through the process of examining the concepts and the undergraduates prepared in the teacher education programs approved under the Standards. When teacher educators and other educational professionals can establish and demonstrate the desirable teacher effectiveness performances inherent in the Standards, which are theoretically supported by effective teacher preparation, they can then demonstrate to any educational critic or supporter that programs which adhere to the Standards do produce the desired products. What is required is a research and evaluation effort to create a model for evaluating the extent to which the Standards are

attained through an assessment of training performance. Essentially this involves a two-step effort: (1) the identification of the concepts and their related components, and (2) the implementation of an observation and data collection system for determining the extent to which the concepts are contained in teaching performance.

If teaching is a profession, then the profession should be knowledgeable about the concepts in teaching. With the implementation of the Standards, July 1, 1980, it is important that these concepts be identified. What are the concepts? They are what the profession, based on a history of professional operation, says they are. The concepts are identified by the members of the profession and the products of this identification process are the concepts. In Ohio, since the Standards were created first, we had to identify a list of concepts describing the teaching-learning process.

A comprehensive review of the literature was conducted by three members of the Ohio Study Council for Research and Evaluation: Tom Gallant, Denison University; Glenn Graham, University of Dayton; and Barry Lehrer, University of Cincinnati.* The early efforts of this review consisted of locating and identifying the concepts which seem to be prevalent in the literature. A total of 316 concept statements were identified. The three council members then met with the project staff for one day and reviewed all concept lists and statements. This synthesizing and refining process ended with a list of 135 concepts.

The list of 135 concepts was again reviewed individually by the staff and the council members who had conducted the review. This review primarily identified concept gaps and singled out concepts that might be too general, requiring elaboration through additional concepts. The result of this review was a list of 203 concepts. At this project stage, concepts had only been identified, not rated on importance for any purpose or population.

An expert panel of six individuals, five of whom were council members, was identified to review the concept statements. The panel members were:

*The names of all members of the council are listed in Appendix B.

Jan Branch, Miami University
Nancy Eberhart, Ohio Department of Education
William Hoffman, Wooster College
Dorothy Kavanagh, Liaison, Ohio Teacher Education and Certification Advisory Commission
Richard Miller, Superintendent, Big Walnut Local School District
Russell Spillman, Ohio State University

The panel members were given explicit instructions for reviewing the concept statements. The concept statements were rated separately on a four point scale (0-3) using two criteria: (1) their importance for enhancing learning, and (2) their importance to a beginning teacher (or student teacher). The rating was done on an individual basis, and the scores per concept averaged.

The panel members were asked to expand, delete, and synthesize the concepts as they saw fit. The panel was brought together for a one-day meeting with the project staff, at which time the concepts and their ratings were discussed individually. Appropriate rewording and synthesis resulted. At the conclusion of this activity, 79 concept statements that had rating scores of 2.4 or greater on one or both criteria remained. There were 71 concepts for enhancing learning and 56 required for the beginning teacher. Of these concepts, 48 were common to the two criteria. Essentially, two lists of concepts were produced, and these two lists were combined into one all-inclusive list for the large-scale survey.

The large-scale survey was intended to obtain the judgments of a representative sample of educational professionals, with a large number of those involved being teacher educators. The sample was designed for geographical selection throughout Ohio. The sample was random and stratified with a priori allocation so that teachers involved with the teacher education and teacher educators in colleges and universities received the largest representations.

The survey was conducted primarily by council members. Each member was responsible for assembling a defined group of respondents and collecting data from them. The populations sampled and allocations by council member were as follows:

1. Each representative of a state-supported university randomly selected 30 college of education faculty and 100 cooperating teachers.
2. Each private college representative randomly selected a sample of eight faculty members and 33 cooperating teachers in his own college and a similar sample in each of two additional private colleges.

3. One Ohio Department of Education representative elected a random sample of 50 department professional staff members.
4. The elementary and secondary school representatives each selected a group of 50 practicing teachers from school districts in their immediate geographical areas.
5. Six hundred teachers were randomly selected statewide for a mail survey. The selection list was provided by the Ohio Department of Education.

All Council members were instructed to select at random the sample members from the defined population with representation from urban, suburban, or rural schools. Those collecting the data were admonished that, to the extent possible, data should be collected by personally assembling the sample and administering the survey instrument. Although the directions for responding were self-explanatory, they were reviewed with assembled groups of respondents when the instrument was administered.

The mail portion of the survey was conducted during the fall of 1979. The initial cover letter and the rating scale for teacher concepts were mailed during November. Completed response forms were accepted through January, although the heavy returns occurred within a month of mailing.

The response sheet was designed so that responses could be machine-scored. A standard IBM form was used with slight modification to accommodate the dual response. As with the expert panel members, the respondents rated, on a four point scale, the concept statements on the two criteria of importance for enhancing learning and importance for a beginning teacher. Routine procedures for processing the response sheets were implemented as they were returned. The computer runs for scoring the response sheets and analyzing the data were concluded by February 10, 1980.

Results

The process of rating a concept as essential consisted of two procedures. First, a special panel of six consultants rated the original list on concepts obtained from the literature synthesis search. The panel rated on two factors (1) importance of the concept for enhancing learning, and (2) importance for a beginning teacher. A four point scale of +3 for essential, +2 for highly desirable, +1 for desirable, and 0 for none of these was used. Concepts having a mean rating of 2.4 or greater were designated, by the expert panel, as essential concepts. The mean rating of 2.4 was arbitrarily determined.

The second procedure was to take the essential concepts identified by the expert panel for a further rating by a much larger group of professionals from various areas of teacher education, utilizing the same rating procedure employed by the expert panel. Mean scores were computed, and concepts with a mean rating of 2.4 or greater are listed below as essential concepts.

Concepts for Enhancing Learning with Mean Ratings of 2.40-3.00

The 37 concepts with these mean ratings comprise 52.1 percent of the 71 concepts rated by this criterion. The concepts, in order of their mean ratings, were:

		<u>Mean Rating</u>
27.	Gives clear directions and explanations.	2.81
36.	Evidences fairness, tact, compassion and good judgment in dealing with pupils.	2.73
48.	Demonstrates knowledge in the subject areas.	2.68
13.	Gives student individual help or attention.	2.67
7.	Provides opportunities for all ability levels of pupils to respond and participate.	2.66
43.	Demonstrates enthusiasm for teaching and learning and for the subject being taught at the time.	2.66
38.	Maintains an educational environment conducive to developing positive attitudes toward learning.	2.65
1.	Uses effectively a variety of verbal and non-verbal classroom communication techniques.	2.64
37.	Maintains a social classroom atmosphere which reflects enthusiasm, warmth, support, and respect.	2.64
46.	Maintains self-control in classroom situations with pupils.	2.63
19.	Controls disruptive or deviant pupil behavior objectively.	2.61
60.	Selects goals and objectives appropriate to pupil needs.	2.60
59.	Prepares lessons that are well organized and cohesive.	2.59
22.	Promotes self-awareness and positive self-image in pupils.	2.58
33.	Modifies instruction appropriate to identified learner needs.	2.58
49.	Accepts responsibility.	2.57

		<u>Mean Rating</u>
3.	Encourages students to take responsibility for their own work.	2.55
52.	Uses acceptable written and oral expression with learners.	2.55
9.	Demonstrates ability to work with individuals, small groups, and large groups.	2.54
34.	Identifies and evaluates learning problems of students in content area being taught.	2.54
24.	Uses positive reinforcement patterns with students.	2.53
66.	Provides accurate and prompt feedback to learners about their performance.	2.53
4.	Employs a variety of appropriate instructional strategies and techniques to achieve objectives.	2.52
25.	Makes possible an environment where students are actively involved, working on-task.	2.52
51.	Has realistic expectations for student learning.	2.52
32.	Knows how to select, organize and evaluate appropriate instructional materials.	2.51
2.	Initiates instruction by providing appropriate background information and explanation of task-related activities.	2.48
18.	Maintains a challenging level of instruction.	2.47
14.	Uses skillful questions that lead pupils to analyze, synthesize and think critically.	2.45
35.	Modifies the curriculum to serve changing needs of students.	2.44
74.	Uses valid criteria and procedures for determining pupil achievement of learning objectives.	2.44
56.	Structures the use of time to facilitate student learning and student attainment of educational objectives.	2.43
20.	Provides feedback to student on his behavior.	2.43
77.	Expresses humor when appropriate.	2.42
57.	Selects, identifies and implements instructional procedures which are consistent with instructional objectives.	2.41
12.	Provides assignments which are interesting and appropriate to different ability levels.	2.41
15.	Motivates students to ask questions.	2.40

Concepts for Beginning Teachers with Mean Ratings of 2.40-3.00

The 20 concepts with these mean ratings comprise 35.7 percent of the 56 concepts rated for beginning teachers. The concepts, in order of their mean ratings, were:

		<u>Mean Ratings</u>
27.	Gives clear directions and explanations.	2.78
36.	Evidences fairness, tact, compassion and good judgment in dealing with pupils.	2.69
46.	Maintains self-control in classroom situations with pupils.	2.65
49.	Accepts responsibility.	2.63
43.	Demonstrates enthusiasm for teaching and learning and for the subject being taught at the time.	2.61
48.	Demonstrates knowledge in the subject areas.	2.57
37.	Maintains a social classroom atmosphere which reflects enthusiasm, warmth, support, and respect.	2.55
13.	Gives student individual help or attention.	2.53
38.	Maintains an educational environment conducive to developing positive attitudes toward learning.	2.52
19.	Controls disruptive or deviant pupil behavior objectively.	2.51
59.	Prepares lessons that are well organized and cohesive.	2.51
52.	Uses acceptable written and oral expression with learners.	2.48
47.	Expresses a positive personal attitude toward the teaching profession.	2.47
7.	Provides opportunities for all ability levels of pupils to respond and participate.	2.44
54.	Reacts with sensitivity to the needs and feelings of others.	2.44
9.	Demonstrates ability to work with individuals, small groups, and large groups.	2.43
24.	Uses positive reinforcement patterns with students.	2.43
60.	Selects goals and objectives appropriate to pupil needs.	2.42
1.	Uses effectively a variety of verbal and non-verbal classroom communication techniques.	2.41

Mean
Ratings

55. Requests appropriate professional assistance
when needed.

2.41

An examination of the essential concepts reveals that 17 concepts appear for both criteria. There is high agreement among the top ten concepts in both groups with eight of the ten concepts common in each list. The remaining two concepts, although not in the top ten ratings of the other criterion, are rated as essential in the other group. The top two concept ratings were the same in both groups. Giving clear directions and treating pupils fairly outrated all the other concepts in both lists. Concepts including traits such as self-control, responsibility, and enthusiasm were rated higher for the beginning teacher while concepts concerned with knowledge of the subject area and working individually with all pupils were rated higher for enhancing learning.

The concepts have not been classified under a set of headings or subdivisions; nevertheless, the concepts rated essential do seem to stress some components of the teaching process more than others. A perusal of the concepts rated 2.50 or higher for the beginning teacher stress a healthy classroom climate, controlled discipline, and an enthusiastic teacher who teaches pupils with fairness. A similar inspection of the concepts rated 2.50 or higher for enhancing learning stress the points listed for the beginning teacher along with more emphasis on planning instruction, managing instruction, and directing pupil activities. The concepts involving individualized instruction (that is, ability grouping, modes of instruction) were rated higher for enhancing learning than for the beginning teacher.

When the concepts are compared with ratings 2.40 or higher for the criteria, there is general agreement between the two sets of essential concepts. Seventeen of the 20 essential concepts for a beginning teacher are also essential concepts for enhancing learning. Of the three concepts that are not listed as essential, one is rated 2.39 and the other two were not included in the 71 concepts rated for enhancing learning. Seventeen of the 37 essential concepts for enhancing learning are also essential concepts for the beginning teacher. The remaining 20 essential concepts are varied but appear to relate more to modifying and evaluating instruction to meet learner needs. Keeping instruction interesting to pupils is stressed through the use of a variety of instructional strategies, techniques, materials, activities, and procedures.

In summary, the two mean ratings produced similar lists of essential concepts. The 12 concepts rated the highest for beginning teachers were also rated essential for enhancing learning. Also, the first 13 concepts rated the highest for enhancing learning were also rated essential for the beginning teacher. Appendix A contains a list of all 79 concepts with their ratings.

Further Research

This study needs to be continued by council members with the following goals:

1. To review the operational definitions of the essential concepts and to develop the indicators and descriptors for each concept.
2. To develop an observation instrument that can be used to observe student teachers or teachers to determine which indicators/descriptors — and thus which concepts — are evidenced in their teaching.
3. To determine if the concepts identified in the original study are level specific (elementary, junior high, secondary, college).
4. To key the concepts to the Ohio Standards for colleges or universities preparing teachers.
5. To prepare a handbook for observers which explains the uses of the observation instrument.

Summary

This study was designed as a statewide survey of one segment of the education profession. Geographically the survey covered the entire state. Primarily educators who had some involvement in teacher education were surveyed, although there was one stratum surveyed which consisted of teachers who had not, and were not, involved in teacher education.

There was some complexity to the design of the study. Essentially a modified Delphi approach was used to identify the necessary concept statements. These statements were generated from within the profession. They were then circulated throughout a segment of the profession and rated on importance according to two criteria.

The administration of the survey instrument included both the administration to intact groups and the use of a mail survey. The extensive involvement of council members was for the purpose of facilitating data collection and enhancing the response rate.

Information about concepts can be obtained for student teachers as a group and individually. Comparisons between individuals can be made on specific concepts or by student teacher groups on specific concepts. Profiles of concepts of individuals can be used for diagnostic purposes, although that matter was not addressed in this project. The information which can be obtained about student teacher performance in respect to identified concepts can be used to identify individual concept successes and difficulties. Once a system of observation and computer analysis is established, individual profiles can be provided to student teachers and used as a cumulative means of evaluation. The evaluation of student teaching can become more objective and predictive of teacher success.

The information obtained for groups of student teachers can be used for the purposes of standardizing the mean scores for the colleges and universities and to note the deviations from the means in terms of specific concepts. From such information, questions can be raised considering the effectiveness of the teacher education programs and where the programs can be improved. Inferences about the program can be obtained from a careful study of data on student teacher concepts over an academic year and several years.

The evidence from the type of research and evaluation going on at the Ohio Study Council for Research and Evaluation will in time provide a larger knowledge base for continuing the development of a program of teacher training. The more we understand about teacher performance, the better we can develop the skills of pedagogy to improve that performance. Continued research in this area should meet the needs implied by the Standards and make a substantial contribution to the improvement of teacher education in Ohio.

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Appendix A
Concepts: Large Scale Survey

		<u>Ratings</u>	
		<u>Beginning Teacher</u>	<u>Enhancing Learning</u>
1.	Uses effectively a variety of verbal and nonverbal classroom communication techniques.	2.41	2.64
2.	Initiates instruction by providing appropriate background information and explanation of task-related activities.	2.37	2.48
3.	Encourages students to take responsibility for their own work.		2.55
4.	Employs a variety of appropriate instructional strategies and techniques to achieve objectives.	2.29	2.52
5.	Uses a variety of resources and materials appropriate to instructional objectives.	2.13	2.36
6.	Uses supplementary materials as necessary to foster student learning.		2.20
7.	Provides opportunities for all ability levels of pupils to respond and participate.	2.44	2.66
8.	Establishes motivation and transitions in instruction which are varied and appropriate.		2.32
9.	Demonstrates ability to work with individuals, small groups, and large groups.	2.43	2.54
10.	Uses instructional strategies that lead students to make functional use of basic study skills.	2.11	
11.	Acknowledges and accepts divergent view points.	2.13	2.25
12.	Provides assignments which are interesting and appropriate to different ability levels.	2.19	2.41
13.	Gives student individual help or attention.	2.53	2.67

		Ratings	
		<u>Beginning</u>	<u>Enhancing</u>
		<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Learning</u>
14.	Uses skillful questions that lead pupils to analyze, synthesize and think critically.	2.16	2.45
15.	Motivates students to ask questions.	2.19	2.40
16.	Provides learning experiences which enable students to transfer principles and generalizations to situations outside the school.		2.39
17.	Responds appropriately to partially successful performance of students.		2.34
18.	Maintains a challenging level of instruction.		2.47
19.	Controls disruptive or deviant pupil behavior objectively.	2.51	2.61
20.	Provides feedback to student on his behavior.		2.43
21.	Demonstrates self-understanding and self-awareness.	2.14	2.24
22.	Promotes self-awareness and positive self-image in pupils.		2.58
23.	Helps students discover and correct factual errors and inaccuracies.		2.36
24.	Uses positive reinforcement patterns with students.	2.43	2.53
25.	Makes possible an environment where students are actively involved, working on-task.	2.35	2.52
26.	Asks students to extend or elaborate ideas or to support answers with evidence.		2.18
27.	Gives clear directions and explanations.	2.78	2.81
28.	Develops student feedback and evaluation skills and uses them to modify teaching techniques or procedures.		2.26
29.	Asks for use of application of knowledge concepts, using the concept in order to solve a problem.	1.92	2.19
30.	Provides reading instruction in content area of specialization.		2.14

		<u>Ratings</u>	
		<u>Beginning</u>	<u>Enhancing</u>
		<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Learning</u>
31.	Acts as an appropriate model in terms of ethics, attitudes and values.	2.34	2.38
32.	Knows how to select, organize and evaluate appropriate instructional materials.	2.23	2.51
33.	Modifies instruction appropriate to identified learner needs.	2.28	2.58
34.	Identifies and evaluates learning problems of students in content area being taught.		2.54
35.	Modifies the curriculum to serve changing needs of students.		2.44
36.	Evidences fairness, tact, compassion and good judgment in dealing with pupils.	2.69	2.73
37.	Maintains a social classroom atmosphere which reflects enthusiasm, warmth, support, and respect.	2.55	2.64
38.	Maintains an educational environment conducive to developing positive attitudes toward learning.	2.52	2.65
39.	Promotes physical and mental health of pupils.		2.26
40.	Demonstrates proper listening skills.	2.36	
41.	Relates to accountability issues concerning responsibilities to students, parents, and the instructional process.	1.91	
42.	Demonstrates self-direction in moving toward a task.	2.12	2.23
43.	Demonstrates enthusiasm for teaching and learning and for the subject being taught at the time.	2.61	2.66
44.	Conveys the impression of knowing what to do and how to do it.	2.33	
45.	Is aware of reasons for being in the teaching profession.	2.29	

		Ratings	
		<u>Beginning</u> <u>Teacher</u>	<u>Enhancing</u> <u>Learning</u>
46.	Maintains self-control in classroom situations with pupils.	2.65	2.63
47.	Expresses a positive personal attitude toward the teaching profession.	2.47	2.39
48.	Demonstrates knowledge in the subject areas.	2.57	2.68
49.	Accepts responsibility.	2.63	2.57
50.	Follows the policies and procedures of the school district.	2.35	
51.	Has realistic expectations for student learning.		2.52
52.	Uses acceptable written and oral expression with learners.	2.48	2.55
53.	Can explain own personal philosophy of education.		1.84
54.	Reacts with sensitivity to the needs and feelings of others.	2.44	
55.	Requests appropriate professional assistance when needed.	2.41	
56.	Structures the use of time to facilitate student learning and student attainment of educational objectives.	2.25	2.43
57.	Selects, identifies and implements instructional procedures which are consistent with instructional objectives.	2.22	2.41
58.	Selects and clarifies learner objectives for lessons.	2.15	2.29
59.	Prepares lessons that are well organized and cohesive.	2.51	2.59
60.	Selects goals and objectives appropriate to pupil needs.	2.42	2.60
61.	Plans instruction at a variety of cognitive levels.	2.07	2.35
62.	Knows how to set priorities for instructional responsibilities.	2.03	2.28
63.	Involves students in self-evaluation.		2.04

		<u>Ratings</u>	
		<u>Beginning Teacher</u>	<u>Enhancing Learning</u>
64.	Maintains evaluation records.	2.32	2.35
65.	Selects appropriate assessment instruments for instructional activities.	2.15	2.31
66.	Provides accurate and prompt feedback to learners about their performance.		2.53
67.	Determines student readiness for learning.	2.09	2.36
68.	Analyzes evaluative information concerning his or her instructional program.	2.38	2.20
69.	Uses information about the effectiveness of his or her instructional program to revise it.	2.25	2.36
70.	Knows own cultural biases.	2.00	2.07
71.	Selects instructional materials with knowledge of their cultural biases.		1.95
72.	Adjusts components of the physical environment over which the teacher has control to facilitate learning.	2.10	2.30
73.	Keeps informed of current literature in professional and specific subject areas.	2.19	
74.	Uses valid criteria and procedures for determining pupil achievement of learning objectives.	2.27	2.44
75.	Engages in professional development by obtaining and evaluating data on own teaching skills for the purpose of self-improvement.		2.24
76.	Works effectively as a member of an instructional team.	2.17	2.24
77.	Expresses humor when appropriate.	2.34	2.42
78.	Adapts to new or confusing situations readily.	2.27	2.32
79.	Uses more than one method in a single presentation to achieve instructional objectives.		2.39

Appendix B

Members of the Ohio Study Council for Research and Evaluation in Teacher Education — 1981

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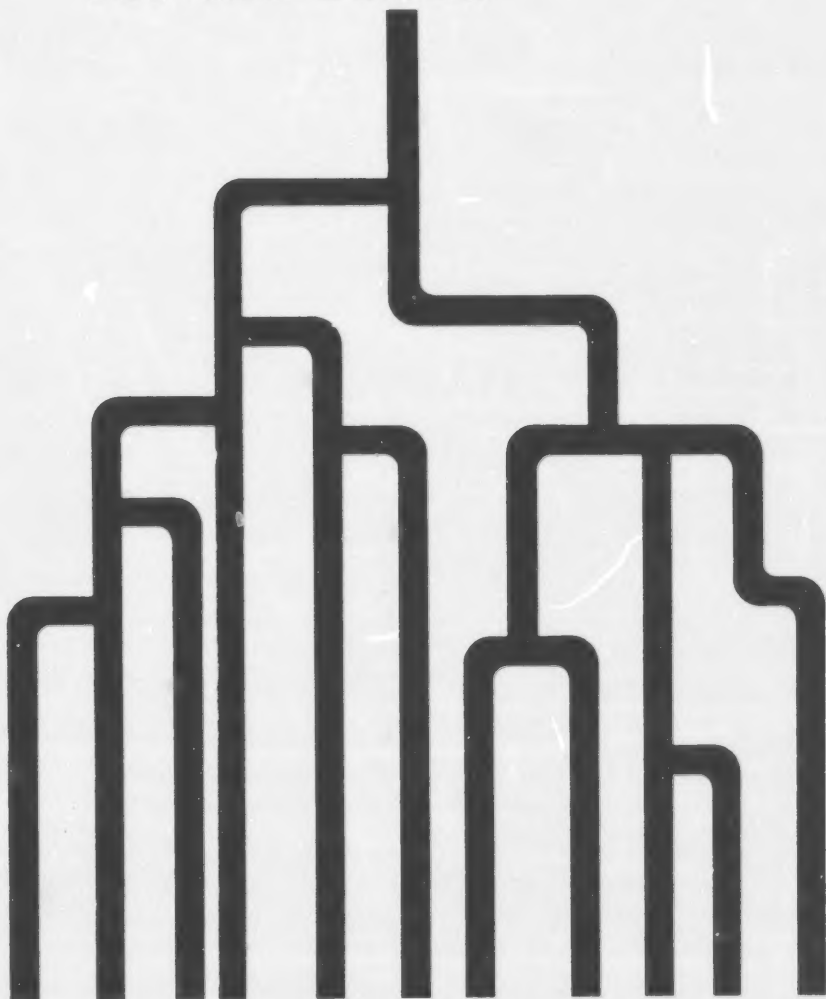
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**Curriculum Directions
in Basic Skills
for the 1980s**



BASIC SKILLS IN MATHEMATICS: A SUMMARY

Speaker: Margaret Bledsue Kasten
Consultant
Division of Elementary and Secondary
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Ohio Department of Education

There is a need for an expanded definition of basic skills in mathematics in general and especially one which includes calculators and computers. An expanded definition necessitates inservice education for teachers presently teaching mathematics.

Often basic skills in mathematics is interpreted to mean arithmetic or computations. Such a definition is severely limited and could have the effect of creating a curriculum that could not prepare students to live in tomorrow's world.

Despite what is believed by the general public and many professional educators, students can do whole number computation. The Ohio educational assessment results closely parallel those of the

National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). That is, in general, students do well on computation especially with whole numbers but fall short in other areas such as problem solving and applications. One Ohio assessment indicated that 92.8 percent of fourth graders could add two or more whole numbers. That such a high number of students have achieved this goal is very impressive. However, the same assessment indicated that only 39.2 percent could "use simple reasoning to answer a practical question."

The results for eighth and twelfth grades indicate similar trends. On one assessment, eighth graders had an average performance of 92 percent on whole number computations but only 55 percent on applications problems. While the performance level on whole number computation items is extremely high, a panel of educators asked to predict student performance on Ohio assessment consistently predicted lower than actual performance on these items. For example, on one twelfth grade assessment, students had an average performance of 91 percent on whole number computation items, but the educator panel predicted a performance of only 81 percent.

Ohio assessment data, in short, indicates that students can compute with whole numbers, at a level higher than predicted by educators. It must be communicated to teachers, and to the public, that "Johnny can add," and then we need to go on to other tasks. We must stop spending years working on skills that have already been

mastered by a huge majority of the students and move on to the teaching of other, more complex, but nonetheless vital, basic mathematical skills.

What are these skills? Hill discusses some of them:

Can anyone in a world where we are constantly bombarded with persuasive statistics seriously deny that the ability to deal intelligently with quantitative information is absolutely basic to good consumerism. And I mean more than the ability to read tables and graphs. I mean the ability to interpret information and to be alert to misrepresentations, the ability to draw valid inferences from data. (Hill, 1979, p.3)

The skills outlined by Hill are "real-life" examples of basic mathematical skills. Lengthy lists of such skills abound in the literature of mathematics education. One of the newest and most comprehensive of such lists is found in An Agenda for Action, a publication of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. The document lists eight broad recommendations for mathematics education in the next decade. The first three of these recommendations have special relevance to this discussion.

1. Problem solving must be the focus of school mathematics in the 1980s.
2. Basic skills in mathematics must encompass more than computational facility.
3. Mathematics programs must take full advantage of calculators and computers at all grade levels.

For each broad recommendation a rationale and specific recommended actions are given.

The first recommendation, the problem-solving recommendation, has implications for both those trying to determine the nature of basic mathematical skills and those planning inservice programs. If problem solving is the goal for mathematics education, then certainly it should be considered a basic skill. It may be that mathematics is taught so that students will be able to engage in mathematical problem solving. If this is the case, teachers must become better problem solvers. An excellent inservice resource for teachers is the two volume set Problem Solving...A Basic Mathematics Goal available from the Inservice Office, Ohio Department of Education.

The second recommendation states specifically that:

The full scope of what is basic should contain at least the ten basic skill areas identified by the National Council of

Supervisors of Mathematics's "Position Paper on Basic Skills." These areas are problem solving; applying mathematics in everyday situations; alertness to reasonableness of results; estimation and approximation; appropriate computational skills; geometry; measurement; reading, interpreting, and constructing tables, charts, and graphs; using mathematics to predict; and computer literacy. (Agenda for Action, 1980, pp. 6-7)

This list and the other detailed recommendations provide a starting point for those developing inservice programs for teachers of mathematics. Again, teachers must first accept a broad view of basic skills and see a need for teaching all of the concepts. And, second, the teacher must be competent in all of these areas--this will require inservice training.

The third recommendation involves calculators and computers. Ironically, the least expensive and more readily available of these two, the calculator, seems to meet more opposition in schools. However, the fact is that students have access to calculators. Mathematics educators need to teach students the correct ways to use calculators. Implications for inservice programs are almost overwhelming when considering calculators and computers. Yet it seems evident that daily interaction with these electronic tools in the real world will require their integration into the curriculum. Inservice education on these topics will be essential.

The needed changes in the school mathematics curriculum cannot take place unless teachers (a) see a need for an expanded definition of basic skills, and (b) know what topics and activities should be used to develop these additional skills. These conditions imply the need for inservice education.

The essential purpose of the public schools is to educate students to function in society. That skill can be taught only by teachers who are aware of the great and small changes within the immediate community and the wider world. Teacher training should be a continuing, never-ending process, closely related to the reality of the life of children and families. (Spellane and Levenson, cited by Downs in Osborne, 1977, p. 1)

In 1950 Margaret Mead stated the same thing in a different way:

Teachers who never heard a radio until they were grown up have to cope with children who have never known a world

without television. Teachers who struggled in their childhood with a buttonhook find it difficult to describe a buttonhook to a child bred up among zippers.... Faced with this unwieldy circumstance that the modern teacher becomes not more but, in a sense, less fitted to teach the longer she teaches, we then, as a society, and particularly as those of our society professionally interested in education, have a problem to solve. How can we set up some pattern which will enable the teachers to grow through the years? (Mead, cited by Downs in Osborne, 1977, p. 4)

An excellent source book for those planning inservice education in the area of mathematics is An In-Service Handbook for Mathematics Education, edited by Alan Osborne and published by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. This book includes results of a national survey as well as articles examining all aspects of inservice education for the teacher of mathematics.

Among nine goals for inservice programs listed by Downs were:

1. To provide teachers the opportunity, the time, the means, and the materials for improving their professional competencies.
2. To help teachers expand their perceptions of mathematics.

Other articles in the book discuss the role of supervisors, guidelines for developing a program, characteristics of successful programs, resources, and evaluation.

These first two goals must be set firmly in the minds of those developing programs for teachers if we are to make needed improvements in the educational system. We can make the best even better through inservice education.

This essay attempted to establish the need for an expanded definition of basic skills in mathematics and discuss briefly the ramifications for inservice education. It seems apparent that in this age of technology and explosion of knowledge, educators must take the lead in designing future-oriented curriculum for both students and teachers.

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STAFF DEVELOPMENT FOR THE THREE Rs

Speaker: Elizabeth Dillon-Peterson
Director, Staff Development
Lincoln, Nebraska, Public Schools

There are basics to be considered in the planning and delivery of staff development activities, just as effective teaching of the three Rs is basic to quality education. This paper will describe the important characteristics of this particular type of staff development, and will describe some prototypes of staff development activities which are appropriate for teachers teaching various levels—elementary, junior high, and senior high. Finally, the paper will offer staff development guidelines which will help to make any inservice effort more successful.

Characteristics of Good Staff Development

Many inservice efforts are not well received because their objectives are not clearly understood. It is important that participants in inservice programs know what is expected of them—and if the effort is designed to improve instruction for students—what students are expected to be able to do as result of the teacher's participation in the activity.

Teachers frequently complain about receiving the same "dose" of inservice, regardless of their background or inclinations. Consequently, the wise inservice leader provides for alternative approaches to the same objectives. These approaches may be as simple as providing for group instruction and independent learning based on pretests, or even a choice of times of day or location.

Inservice programs which provide busy teachers with a management system which is complete and readily applicable to the classroom are better received than those which require the teacher to get such a system together. Again, this need not be highly complicated, but should include the following elements:

1. pre-teaching assessment strategies or instruments
2. post-teaching assessment techniques
3. plans for reteaching to those who have not mastered the content or objectives
4. plans for moving on with those who are ready, which include
 - a. individual instruction
 - b. group instruction or peer assistance
 - c. enrichment activities

Prototype Curriculum-related Staff Development Plans

Using these characteristics as guidelines, the following plans have been developed to illustrate how these principles look in actual curriculum-related activities.

1. Reading—Primary (K, 1st grade)
 - a. Clear objectives
 - (1) The student will be able to list naming words (subjects, nouns).
 - (2) The teacher will develop two strategies for helping students identify naming words.
 - b. Alternative teaching strategies
 - (1) Group Discussion—everything has names, list those around the room.
 - (2) Label all things in the room.
 - (3) Cut pictures from magazines, make a group book of names.
 - (4) Brainstorm other strategies.
 - c. Assessment
 - (1) Pre: observe, give individual oral test, record names of students who do not have skills.
 - (2) Post: ask each child to contribute to list of naming words, note those who still do not contribute appropriately.
 - d. Reteaching plan
 - (1) Work with each child on own name, family names, friends' names.
 - (2) Have another child tutor.
 - (3) Have triads develop a group list of names.
 - e. Enrichment activity choices
 - (1) Make an individual book or chart of names.
 - (2) Make a tape-recorded list of categories of names; e.g., names of things in the room, things outside, things in a kitchen.
2. Writing (composition)—Junior High (7th grade)
 - a. Clear objectives
 - (1) The student will be able to write or organize a summary paragraph.
 - (2) The teacher will be able to
 - a. assess functioning level of students in the class,
 - b. provide alternatives to accommodate at least two levels (dependent and independent) of functioning.
 - b. Strategy with alternatives

- (1) Develop topic sentences as organizers for summary paragraph.
 - (2) Group 1 (independent): give an assignment such as "Summarize what you feel to be the most important events happening in the first three chapters of The White Mountains, using the topic sentence as a starter."
 - (3) Group 2 (dependent): give the same topic sentence. In advance select a sentence from each of the chapters which are summarized. Scramble the order and sequence of the sentences, having students rearrange, putting sentences in proper order and sequence. Use topic sentence in same way.
- c. Reteaching strategies
- (1) Group 2 (on board); check as a group. Ask which goes with Chapter 1. Have student do it: Ask "Who does, does not agree?" Verify, go back, and check. Posttesting and reteaching at same time.
Teacher version
 1. _____ (Insert other students'
 2. _____ versions under teacher's
 3. _____ version.)
 4. _____
 5. _____
 - (2) Reteaching for those who "don't get it"—alter the practice exercises.
 - (3) Alternative summaries—four sentences scrambled in envelope, students put in proper sequence.
- d. Enrichment—have independent students develop their own topic sentence for the second half of the book and complete summaries.
3. General mathematics—Senior High (10th grade)
- a. Clear objectives
 - (1) The student will be able to compute the average of a set of numbers.
 - (2) The teacher will acquire set of alternative ways to help students compute the average.
 - b. Alternative teaching strategies
 - (1) Demonstrate the following strategy:
 - a. Have students gather data themselves, (e.g., heights of all students in the class).

- b. Introduce the concept of "average" by having students generalize about the data collected: "In what ways could it be used?" "What does it tell us?" "Why is it not very useful in this form?"
 - c. Demonstrate figuring the average, using the data collected.
 - (2) Ask participants in the inservice activity to share strategies they have used for teaching this concept.
- c. Assessment of students
 - (1) Pretest: give a small test example (e.g., "Here are five test scores—what is the average?")
 - (2) Posttest: give a similar test.
- d. Reteaching alternatives
 - (1) Demonstrate figuring averages, using a worksheet with prepared data from students' own experience (e.g., ages of parents, using round numbers).
 - (2) Prepare a large flow-chart, outlining steps and giving examples to be posted prominently in the room.
 - (3) If the students are interested, ask them what actual data they would like to collect within the room, and use that data in the same way as they were used initially.
- e. Enrichment
 - (1) Assign examples of averages from newspapers.
 - (2) Extend the concept to grouped data, (e.g., for the whole school, ranges, ages).
 - (3) Extend to other measure of central tendency, such as median and mode.

Basic Staff Development Guidelines

It is worth noting that even if all the elements described above are present in a staff development session, it may not be well received. Adults have a strong need for autonomy and to be treated with respect—not to have their time wasted.

Experience shows that when the following guidelines are followed, staff development sessions have a significantly better chance of satisfying the target audience:

1. Try to include only those who need or want the experience.
2. Have representatives of the target audience help plan or critique the activity.
3. Make the student learning objective clear.
4. Make the inservice participants' expectations clear—what will be presented—and in what format, (lecture, small group activity, demonstration).
5. Give varied examples of ways in which the student learning can be presented, having the participants experience the process if appropriate; provide hand-outs whenever possible.
6. Ask the group to share other ideas which they have found to be successful; capitalize on leadership from within the group.
7. Ask the group to develop a lesson plan or activity using some of the ideas with their own classes at the earliest possible time.
8. Check at some later time to determine whether or not the plan was followed and how successful it was.
9. Determine what other experiences would be helpful to extend the learning for the inservice participants.
10. Select leaders who have successful experience in doing what is being talked about; are good communicators (have an effective presentation style, demonstrate a sense of humor, are well organized, are flexible enough to alter the presentation to meet the needs of participants).
11. Take care of human needs, safety, comfort, collegiality.

IMPLEMENTING A BASIC SKILLS PROGRAM IN AN URBAN SETTING: A SUMMARY

Speaker: Isabelle Carter
Director of Language Arts Education
Toledo City School District

Many teachers are confronted daily with large numbers of students who experience difficulty reading and understanding social studies, mathematics, and other content area subjects. Students often cannot do the work because they lack the reading-study-thinking skills that would enable them to understand the material.

The purpose of the basic skills projects implemented in several Toledo Public Schools was to improve the reading achievement of fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade students. It was theorized that the students' reading achievement could be improved through an upgrading of their teachers' skills in reading instruction. It was believed that by increasing the parents' involvement with reading activities, the students would demonstrate gains in reading achievement. The purpose was made more specific through four factors:

1. Teachers demonstrating increased knowledge and skills techniques to improve students' reading, language and mathematics/social studies skills.
2. Students demonstrating a more positive attitude toward reading, language, and mathematics/social studies and showing a significant increase in their level of achievement.
3. Students increasing their mathematics/social studies knowledge and skills as a result of their being taught reading and language in the content areas of mathematics and social studies.
4. Parents identifying and performing those activities which helped their children improve in reading, language, and mathematics/social studies through the use of the newspaper.

During the training sessions, the teachers were trained in methods and techniques in teaching vocabulary and comprehension skills. They developed curricular materials which they used to teach developmental reading skills while teaching content subjects.

The notebook kept by each teacher contained a record of the procedure used, effectiveness of method adjustment made, and results observed. The materials were used in centers, group work, class activities, and as individual seatwork. All materials incorporated the teaching of reading skills through content subjects.

The parent component, Parent Assisting In Reading, was designed to train parents in helping their children in reading development. These sessions provided parents with the knowledge and skills they needed to assist their children as well as how to work with the teachers and other parents.

The delivery system included the following activities:

1. Assessment of pupil and teacher needs;
2. Fifty hours of inservice training for teachers by university consultants based on the needs assessment;
3. Eight hours of training for parents by university consultants;
4. Implementation of activities in classroom and home as a result of inservice sessions;
5. Pre-and post-evaluation activities to assess pupil, parent, and teacher progress.

University standards for graduate level work were used to assess teacher progress in cognitive and performance competencies. Teachers were required to maintain a log documenting implementation in the classroom. They compiled a resource notebook to document the products of mathematics and social studies projects. Criterion-and norm-referenced data collected on a pre/post basis documented the pupil outcome of the mathematics and social studies projects. Parent logs and interviews were used to document the successful implementation of reading, language, and mathematics/social studies skills in the home.

**DISCOVERING WRITING:
A NEW LOOK AT WRITTEN COMMUNICATION**

Speaker: Charlotte K. Brooks
Washington, D.C., Representative
National Council of Teachers of English

Donald Graves says in Balance the Basics: Let Them Write (1978), "People want to write. They need to share what they have discovered through writing." He speaks about the wrong perception of writing as a form of etiquette in which more attention is given to avoiding error than is given to communicating with clarity and vigor. Then he cites the paucity of research in writing. He fears that the current return to the basics will mean less writing, rather than more. Although he may be correct in this view, another strong movement is becoming apparent.

We seem to be moving now to a fuller commitment to the process of writing, and in the last several years, research has been done, articles and books have been written, and public attention has been given to the concerns educators have had for a long time about teaching and assessing writing.

Murray's "Internal Revision: A Process of Discovery," in Cooper and Odell's Research on Composing (1978), quotes a number of professional writers who see writing as a process of discovery:

Writing has got to be an act of discovery....
I write to find out what I'm thinking about.

Edward Albee

Writing to me is a voyage, an odyssey, a discovery
because I'm not certain of precisely what I will find.

Gabriel Fielding

Writing a poem is discovery.

Robert Frost

Every short story, at least for me, is a little act of
discovering.

Mary McCarthy

As you continue writing and rewriting, you begin to see
possibilities you hadn't seen before. Writing a poem is
always a process of discovery.

Robert Hayden

Donald Stewart says in his Authentic Voice (1978), "The primary goal of any writing course is self-discovery for the student." An assumption of this paper is that research is one of the best ways

to learn about discoveries in the world of written communication. Research in the field of writing reveals some common trends of thinking and certain convictions which can serve as a firm base for the improvement of writing.

The National Council of Teachers of English selected a Committee on Writing Standards near the end of the last decade. The committee, comprised of teachers, supervisors and writing specialists, prepared Standards for Basic Skills Writing Programs for use by those states and school districts establishing comprehensive literacy plans. The writing specialists on the committee have been responsible for some of the current research in writing. The teachers and supervisors represent the people responsible for instruction in writing and for the direction of writing programs. This paper can be based quite sensibly upon the standards developed by this group. Although the research cited did not necessarily lead to the development of the standards, much of it does support the ideas implicit in them.

Of the three sections into which the standards are divided (Teaching and Learning, Support, Program Evaluation), I expect to treat in detail only the 12 principles in Teaching and Learning.

There is evidence that knowledge of current theory and research in writing has been sought and applied in developing the writing program.

In the past many writing programs appear to have been based upon what and how teachers were taught. Writing was divorced from the other aspects of English and was often taught as a separate subject. It was not associated with oral expression and was certainly not considered an integral part of other subjects like history, geography, or arithmetic.

A quick survey of recent research in the May, 1980, volume of Research in the Teaching of English shows that a number of discoveries have been made about written communication. These are some of the findings:

Punctuation skills are learned more effectively in context than in isolation.

The grammar skills of academically deficient students can be substantially improved; however, findings did not support the notion that formal grammar ability transfers to theme writing.

Teacher markers in grades 5, 8, and 11 were more influenced by length of composition and freedom from simple errors than by students' control of syntax.

The benefit for students of studying formal, traditional grammar to improve students writing is doubtful, as is the benefit of such study to improve students' attitudes toward their own writing skills, the instructional method, or the subject matter.

Students who are exceptionally slow in reading might benefit from being placed into an integrated reading and writing course.

Expressive writing may have a positive effect on reading comprehension and self-esteem.

A group of journal-keeping students increased significantly over a non-journal-keeping group in self-esteem, in positive self-assessment of communication behavior, and in other aspects of communication.

Students were willing to repeat a task provided constructive feedback was given.

A trend in thinking can be seen here—a trend that runs through much of the research and that must be understood. This trend sees writers, even beginning writers, as persons who discover what they think, what they want to say, and even that they have something they want to say, through writing. The movement is away from putting emphasis on mechanical correctness and editing concerns; away from formal grammar as an aid to writing, and toward expressive writing, integrated language arts experiences, and personal choices of writing topics. The process of writing is clearly as important as the product; as much attention must be given to how writing occurs as to what is written.

Writing instruction is a substantial and clearly identified part of an integrated English language arts curriculum.

Here the application of research and experience is needed in programs and in classrooms. Perl (1979) used the reading miscue model, based on the Goodman model of the reading process. A reading miscue—a mismatch that occurs when readers make responses that differ from the text—is analogous to a writing miscue

when students compose aloud and then have their writing typed "as is." There are implications here for integrating the reading and writing.

Lundsteen (1976) ties writing firmly to oral language, saying that the confidence and fluency that stem from composing with spoken words and body language are essentially related to composing with written words.

Among the mistakes of the educational past has been the compartmentalization of subjects both within and without English. Writing is a process and occurs in all subjects just as reading does, and just as oral language does. Oral language, reading and writing, processes of communication in all subjects, must be integrated within themselves and with other subjects.

The Essentials of Education, supported by more than ten subject matter organizations, states:

In all subjects, students develop skills in using language.... They master these skills and abilities through observing, listening, reading, talking, and writing about science, mathematics, history and the social sciences, the arts and other aspects of our intellectual, social and cultural heritage.

The subject matter of writing has its richest source in the students' personal, social, and academic interests and experiences.

Students' feelings about writing are important and are often related to their feelings about themselves. A study by Fox (1980) reminds us that people naturally seek to become everything they can if they are sufficiently motivated. Students' fears and avoidance of writing and of having their writing evaluated can be reduced, and writing sources within themselves can be discovered. In this study a sequential and student-centered experimental treatment significantly reduced writing apprehension at a faster rate than conventional instruction, and this treatment produced writing at least as proficient in overall quality as the writing produced by conventional instruction.

In support of a similar view, Hogan (1980) says that "Despite the current interest... in acquisition of basic skills, concern for students' attitudes remains a central educational concern." He finds that children's favorite writing activity in the elementary years is letter writing—evidence of personal and social interests. Also, they prefer writing stories to writing reports.

Surprisingly, some of the more mechanical aspects of writing are quite popular—especially learning to spell correctly. Social implications are here, for children write letters and want to spell correctly for social reasons.

Lundsteen maintains that a varied environment that stimulates many kinds of creative responses is necessary for good writing. She suggests music, dance, paint, clay, and rhythmic expression because writing grows out of experience and a good program provides such experiences.

Literature can provide interests and experience and is a vast resource at all levels. It should be integrated with oral and written expression. Some learners use old characters for new exploits in writing—like the dilemma of being young or weak or poor—yet being able to overcome like B'r'er Rabbit, Anansi, Hare, Cinderella or Snow White.

Students write in many forms (for example, essays, notes, summaries, poems, letters, stories, scripts, journals.)

Letters and stories have already been mentioned as the primary interest of children. The important thing here is to remember that all of these forms require writing fully and not necessarily perfectly the first time. Lundsteen says that adults and children do messy first drafts. Ideas forging ahead of the pen cause surface errors—omissions, misspellings, and strange punctuations. Other research suggests that teachers permit students to use invented words and blanks with just the (guessed at) initial letter.

In programs and in classrooms, students ought to be encouraged to write in many forms, and all writing need not be read or corrected by the teacher. Individual files should be shared, orally or silently, with peers; teachers should review files for varieties of writing and for a truly holistic view of the student's progress. Writing should be done for all subjects and in as many ways as possible.

Students write for a variety of audiences (for example, self, classmates, the community, the teacher) to learn that approaches vary as audiences vary.

Southwell (1980) has interesting things to say in terms of audience. Students know that they write to express their thoughts and ideas to teachers—occasionally to fellow students—and in order to show their competence ¹⁴in writing down their ideas. Their audience is limited.

We know that various audiences help to shape the style and content of writing, and that a positive yet selective reaction is the response to be encouraged from teachers and peers. This kind of response is a stimulus for further writing. Teachers help learners by looking for strengths and pointing them out. Negative criticisms should be avoided; red penciled corrections and authoritarian comments can destroy confidence; editing can become a supportive relationship. Posting and publishing student work encourages writing for various audiences.

Students write for a wide range of purposes (for example, to inform, to persuade, to express the self, to explore, to clarify thinking).

Teachers should shift the focus of writing from what is written (product) to how it is produced (process). One purpose for students might be informing the public about a public issue through letters or articles for newspapers. Students can list ideas, discuss them with classmates, or write nonstop on the subjects for a given time, and share what they have written.

Writing a draft comes next. Britton (1967) and others say that younger students develop writing skills most effectively if they begin with expressive writing. Forms and purposes may vary, but the first draft is an important part of the writing process.

Then revision is needed. Murray maintains that writing is rewriting, yet it is one of the writing skills least researched and taught. And this revision is not editing but is a concern with adequate information, structure, form, and language.

Class time is devoted to all aspects of the writing processes: generating ideas, drafting, revising and editing.

Program directors and teachers must know that class time devoted to all aspects of writing is time very well spent. Students can learn many ways to generate ideas—alone, in pairs, in small groups, or brainstorming as a class. Writing ought to be done where a teacher can see students involved in the hard process of drafting and redrafting and being puzzled and crossing out and going on again. Much of the revising and editing ought to occur in class also. These are definitely class activities.

All students receive instruction in both (a) developing and expressing ideas and (b) using the conventions of edited American English.

When students' ideas and concepts are valued and accepted, and when teachers understand why students are not always masters of the conventions of edited American English, both teaching and learning become easier and more successful. Hartwell (1980) argues that dialect interference in writing does not exist, and although there is some disagreement with this view, researchers on the subject in the next few years should offer help for teachers of writing.

Control of the conventions of edited American English (supporting skills such as spelling, handwriting, punctuation, and grammatical usage) is developed primarily during the writing process and secondarily through related exercises.

This is something that cannot be said too often because somehow just the opposite notion is in so many minds. The back-to-the-basics movement has had a profound effect upon programs, curriculums, and even the textbook publishing business. Many people have been convinced that everyone wrote well back in the good old days. They also believe the way to get students writing now is to have them conjugate verbs, diagram sentences, fill in blanks in ream after ream of exercises, and never write anything freely until they have mastered all the bits and pieces. Research has shown clearly that this reasoning is faulty and that students learn the conventions of English while they are engrossed in the process of writing.

Students receive constructive responses—from the teacher and from others—at various stages in the writing process.

Students see the purpose of writing when they have appreciative audiences who give them constructive feedback.

Writers know that the way they first construct a draft is not always the best way. Since students do not always know that, teachers must develop methods for making regular revision a part of the writing program. Whether teachers work individually with students, pair them, place them in small groups, or work with the whole class on a paper, all responses must be constructive.

Evaluation of individual writing growth:

- a. is based on complete pieces of writing;
- b. reflects informed judgments, first, about clarity and content and then about conventions of spelling, mechanics and usage;

- c. includes regular responses to individual pieces of student writing as well as periodic assessment measuring growth over a period of time.

Cooper (1977) identifies holistic evaluation of writing as a guided procedure for sorting or ranking written pieces. Here, complete pieces of writing can be used, and raters match them with another piece in a graded series of pieces, score them for the prominence of certain features important to that kind of writing, or assign them a letter or number grade. There is usually a holistic scoring guide.

The rationale for this kind of evaluation is that a piece of writing communicates a whole message with a particular tone to a known audience for some precise purpose. Holistic evaluation gets pretty close to what is essential in writing. But it cannot always be used.

When evaluating writing, teachers should provide encouragement and suggestions and should avoid "hemorrhaging" on the paper. They should respond primarily to content, organization, and clarity, and only secondarily to the conventions and to mechanical errors.

Complete pieces of student writing should be used. Standardized tests of writing are not valid measures of writing performance; they require editing, not writing. They should be used only for prediction or placement or for a research study with a narrow "correctness" hypothesis, say Cooper and Odell, and even then their use for placement is not as valid as a single writing sample quickly scored by trained raters. If a sample is not readily available, a simple verbal ability measure like the SAT verbal section is better than a standardized test of editorial skills.

Teachers should respond regularly to individual pieces of work, but this does not mean that they must bloody them or grade them. They can write constructive comments on papers in student files, can ask students to select papers they want the teachers to read, can read parts of papers selected by students, can ask students to read papers to them, or can have students read all papers and select the best one for the teacher to read.

Although research has concluded that a knowledge of grammar does not necessarily improve writing, there are matters of syntax, sentence composing, and sentence combining that bear further study.

A few conclusions from research are:

Sentence composing, based on the addition of free modifiers which elaborate and clarify through expansion, may offer a viable mode of improving competence in student writing.

Sentence combining practice is effective in increasing syntactic maturity in description but not in exposition.

Sentence combining practice is a useful activity, and teachers of writing would do well to give specific attention to the ability to manipulate syntax. (There may be embedding errors at first, but beginners may learn by making errors). One can conclude that sentence combining provides something useful for teachers to do, something that permits students to play with sentences in a way that may eventually help them with the work of embedding the fragments of their own ideas into meaningful combinations.

Research tells educators much that is useful about techniques, strategies, and systems for improving the teaching and learning of basic skills. Although the primary concern here has been written communication, there is no way in which this basic skill can be separated totally from the others. Researchers have shown that all communication has a firm language base, and that good writing can come from initial oral communication. Braddock et al. (1963) say, "Writing is simply a mode of representation within the larger systems of language, having its own conventions, but subject to the constraints that operate within the system as a whole. Rules apply to writing as well as to speech. There must be attention to the larger context of writing."

Research and practical experience indicate that the teaching and learning of basic skills must reflect the Standards for Basic Skills Writing Programs and must include the cited Support and Program Evaluation components not touched upon here. There is still much to discover about writing, and research will help to show the way.

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Principals' Reading Leadership Program

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School administrators are constantly being bombarded from all sides on their responsibilities for the operation of the schools: Why doesn't the school bus stop at our corner? Close any of the schools, but not ours. The lunches are not what children like to eat. These are facts among principals. It is also a fact that the teaching of reading is the fundamental building block to learning, so principals must be responsible for the operation of the reading program in their schools. Elementary principals have a primary responsibility for providing a reading program that is best for teachers and students in their schools, but in order to do this they must have knowledge about the reading processes. How do principals usually try to gain this knowledge?

1. Through inservice training in a group. This is most popular, because they sit and listen to someone talk about reading. (Such as this conference today.)
2. Through training usually done by a professional organization. Again, it is in a group and contains a great deal of listening.
3. Through visits to other schools. Principals visit, but usually do not know exactly what they need to observe or review.
4. Through talking to other principals. This is used frequently but is not very reliable.

The question then arises, could inservice education improve for the elementary principals? The answer is, of course, yes.

During the early days of Right to Read, schools were given grants to improve reading programs, and they had to develop needs assessment and program planning by a systematic approach. It was found that when a principal knew something about reading, he or she became more involved in the process, and the school reading program of that school improved. Most principals, during this time, indicated that they did not have the time to go to many conferences, or it cost too much to attend, or only principals with Right to Read grants could attend the conferences. Because of these indications, several of the technical assistants during that period of Right to Read (1971-1974) decided that an inservice program to assist the elementary principals would prove most successful. From this background and after a few years, the Principals' Reading

Leadership Program was developed. (It was first called the Elementary School Principals' Right to Read Training Program.)

A contract from the federal Right to Read Office was granted META-4 for audiovisual material, and a sub-contract to write the material was awarded a group that had been part of the technical assistants of the earlier years. The people who developed the program were reading specialists and educational administrators. James Thrasher, a superintendent, was the project director and the following people worked with him: Ira Aaron, Alma Bingham, Don Brown, John Hunt, Charlie Knight, Thomas MacCalla, Beth Moore, and Peggy Ransom.

The rationale for this program was to assist the principals in gaining knowledge about the reading processes and to develop skills in performing as an instructional leader for reading program improvement. Eight learning episodes of approximately two hours each, plus three cluster group work sessions for skill development, were developed.

The eight episodes were:

1. The Nature of Reading and Reading Instruction
2. Reading Approaches and Organization
3. Needs Assessment
4. Program Management
5. Reading Program Planning Process
6. Assessment and Evaluation of Reading Programs
7. Community and Parent Involvement
8. Staff Development

The materials were presented in written manuals, audio tapes, and filmstrips. There was a pre- and posttest for each episode. The basic idea was that the principal would use the material at her or his own time schedule; but after the third, fifth, and eighth episodes, several principals would convene and have a simulation group process to review the material. The total time to finish the eight episodes and simulation situations was estimated at about 25 hours.

When the product was finished by the contractor, the pre- and posttests and the simulations were not included in the final product. Seven episodes had the written material and audiovisual filmstrips. The eighth episode was finished with just the written material.

Last fall (1980) Eunice Bethke piloted the material in the state of Wisconsin and presented the results to the National Basic Skills Orientation Conference in Washington, D.C. This was the first release of the program. She stated that the programs were used independently, and not in sequence, as was the original idea. (Without the clusters, this is an alternative usage of the product.) She mentioned everyone liked the material, but some thought it was

too easy and some thought it too hard. (The pre- and posttest would have helped people estimate whether they needed to read the material fast, slow, or not at all if they knew everything in it.)

The ideas she suggested for the usage of the program, other than being used with principals, were:

1. Inservice education for Wisconsin through the Reading Specialists Network
2. Textbook selection committees
3. Parent groups
4. Tutors and paraprofessionals

This is not surprising, for when the materials were piloted in the state of Washington, the principals wanted to keep the materials immediately so they could use them with the teachers. They also wanted to use them with other principals. The usage is variable, but the program was developed to be used by principals and it is hoped that the first contact with the materials will be by principals.

Dr. Bethke also stated that there were two problems. First, the secondary principals and others in the secondary level of teaching wanted material such as this program produced for them. (Again, in the pilot studies, that was also mentioned to us several times.) She also mentioned the narrative goes fast for some people, and for college classes it was too simple. (The material was not devised for college classes. Again, a pre- and posttest would help one who is going to utilize the material to adjust the length of time needed to read and view it. With little knowledge, one certainly might go over the material again and again.) From her report, it was obvious the program was accepted by the people in her study. The advantages of the program as seen by the writers are:

1. The principal can do this program on her or his own time schedule.
2. The cost would be very low since the program is free and available from the state department of education.
3. The entire program was written by reading specialists and educational administrators who represent a cross section of the United States.
4. The eight episodes give an overview of the reading processes and programs, and list materials for future review, if one needs more information.
5. The pre- and posttest were most advantageous.*
6. The simulation group process helped principals review and talk about materials with other principals.*

*These elements were not included in the finished product.

7. Pilot studies in the state of Washington showed that principals liked and learned from the materials.
8. The materials were reviewed and analyzed throughout the production by a group representative of directors of reading instruction, elementary school principals, district and state superintendents, the Right to Read Office, and the contractor.

The disadvantages of the program are:

1. There will not be enough sets of the program in each state for all the districts that want to use them.
2. Principals might not set themselves on a schedule to finish the products and send them on to others.
3. Without the pre- and posttesting, principals do not know how much they know about the episode before and after they use it.
4. Without a simulation session three times, the principals cannot review the reading processes and programs with other principals.
5. Principals cannot keep the materials, so there is a need for a reference book that they could maintain in their office

The Principals' Leadership Program is a product that has been needed. There is nothing in the field like it. This is a self-learning program, free and easy to use, and it does help principals to learn about their school's reading programs. It is a inservice program that can make a difference in the development of reading programs in elementary schools.